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AUTHOR	Barker, David J., Ed.; Terdy, Dennis, Ed.
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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the state conference of the Illinois Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages include two plenary session presentations and six concurrent session presentations. The plenary session presentations are "Who's In Charge Here?" by Jesan Handscombe and "So What Do You Do In There Anyway?" by Dennis Terdy. The concurrent session presentations are: "Cloze Residual Gain: A Procedure for Measuring Information Gain in ESL Reading Comprehension" (Patricia German, Kyle Perkins); "Tutoring Without a Net" (Virginia Gibbons, Suzanne Liebman); " Wholistic' Evaluation of Language Minority Students in Elementary and Secondary Schools" (Margot H. Gottlieb); "Can Southeast Asian Students Learn to Discriminate Between English Phonemes More Quickly with the Aid of Music and Rhythm?" (Lisa Karimer); "Critical Issues in the Use and Teaching of the Native Language to Asian Limited English Proficient Students" (Wook Park, Ovid Wong, Noriko Takada, Stephen Shiu, David Wong, Patricia Kim); and "Using Oral and Written Language Responses from Two Language Inventories and Data from a Non-Verbal IQ Test to Predict ESL Reading Performance" (Kyle Perkins, Charlotte Groff, Paul Angelis). (MSE)

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SELECTED PAPERS
from the Twelfth Annual State Convention of Illinois TESOL/BE

LANGUAGE KEY TO LEARNING

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VOLUME V

Edited By
David J. Barker
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Plenary Session Presentations

Who's in Charge Here?
Jean Handscombe 1

"So What Do You Do in There Anyway?"
Dennis Terdy 10

Concurrent Session Presentations

Cloze Residual Gain: A Procedure for Measuring Information Gain in ESL Reading Comprehension
Patricia German and Kyle Perkins 18

Tutoring without a Net
Virginia Gibbons and Suzanne Leibman 27

"Wholistic" Evaluation of Language Minority Students in Elementary and Secondary Schools
Margot H. Gottlieb 31

Can Southeast Asian Students Learn to Discriminate between English Phonemes More Quickly with the Aid of Music and Rhythm?
Lisa Karimer 42

Critical Issues in the Use and Teaching of the Native Language to Asian ;imited English Proficient Students
Wook Park, Ovid Wong, Noriko Takada
Stephen Shiu, David Wong, Patricia Kim 49

Using Oral and Written Language Responses from Two Language Inventories and Data From a Non-Verbal IQ Test to Predict ESL Reading Performance
Kyle Perkins, Charlotte Groff, Paul Angelis . . . 57

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Who's in Charge Here?

Jean Handscombe

As a child in grade school, all I knew about Illinois was that it was somewhere around the Great Lakes. My sense of geography hasn't improved much, but I do know a lot more about the teachers who choose to live and work here--at least the ones who really matter to me, the TESOL people.

Marsha Santelli was, I think, the first person from Illinois whom I met and got to know. She and I, along with Vickie Gunther, used to pal around in Elementary Education Interest Section business meetings--there were so few of us that is wasn't too difficult to become acquainted with everyone.

Pat Rigg, Muriel Saville-Troike, Kyle Perkins, and Doug Brown I met when they came to Canada to speak at conferences. Then as I began working on the Hawaii conference, I began to realize how strong the representation was from Illinois: Paul Angelis, Lyle Bachman, Margie Berns, John and Mary Ann Boyd, Jeff Bright, Patricia Carrell, Gary Cziko, Margo Gottlieb, Else Hamayan, Guadalupe Hammersma, Braj Kachru, Lars LaBounty, Miriam Lykke, Linda Mrowicki, Charles Parish, Mary Potocki, Marguerite Vellos, and Julie Weisman. It is not too much of a surprise that I looked to Illinois, and specifically to Dick Orem, for help in organizing TESOL Toronto in '83. I've got to know through the '82 Summer Institute and Meeting Linda Schinke-Llano and Elliot Judd, through the Secondary School Newsletter David Barker and Sue Morrisroe, and through his inimitable presidency of TESOL, Joh Haskell.

Given much of a list of TESOL notables, then, you may well ask how I came here today with the question, "Who's in charge here?" But I do, because it's an important question to raise.

ESL students, by the nature of the skills they seek and their often probationary status in a country, are in a weak position to argue on their own behalf for the establishment of effective programs. They depend on members of the host society to act for them. The priority accorded to language training is not very high. ESL programs are often ad hoc additions to the curriculum, with temporary teachers rarely given full-time tenured positions. In fact, if they seek promotions, they may have to abandon the field.

ESL teachers often feel that they are in a similar position to that of their students--tongue-tied and powerless.

What to do?

Today I'd like to describe to you a leadership component in an ESL certification course which is offered in Toronto through the Faculties of Education at both universities--University of Toronto and York--which I've been involved in. It was previously designed for coordinators, program directors, leads of departments, and called "Confessions of a Consultant." The final confession was to my course director at the Faculty of Education--I had been doing it all wrong. Coordinators were not the ones who needed help in doing their

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jobs--they had lots of time to learn in the field. Being a leader was a major focus of all their activities--they were bound to attend to acquiring the necessary skills--life would be unbearable for them if they didn't!

The much more important group in terms of collective power is classroom teachers. If all of them saw themselves as leaders within their present roles --not simply in preparation for future ones--maybe that would move the whole profession into a mainstream position within education.

Let me describe more of the content of the course.

The following originally appeared in the Georgetown University Round Table 1983 Applied Linguistics and the Preparation of Second Language Teachers: Toward a Rationale , Alatis, Shean and Strevens, editors.

The Leadership Component in the Professional Development of ESL Teachers

The leadership training component to which we refer is included in a three-part, 375-hour, mostly in-service course offered to teachers in Ontario who wish to obtain certification in ESL from the Ministry of Education at "Specialist" level. The topic of leadership is covered during the third and final part, which is open only to teachers who have successfully completed the first two and have had at least one year of ESL teaching in an Ontario school, college, or university. Since specialist-level certification is not mandatory in order to teach ESL in Ontario, the very presence of these teachers in the course demonstrates a high level of commitment to their personal, if not collective, professional development. The candidates do not, however, as a rule, presently hold positions of responsibilty beyond their own ESL classroom or department, and very few could (or sad to say, would) expect to do so in the near future. The focus of the course, therefore, is upon the role that ESL classroom teachers can play in improving the effectiveness of, and/or assuring the continued existence of, the programs for which they are responsible.

The aim of the leadership component is to define a collective task--the establishment of a firm institutional base for ESL programs, with strong public and governmental support; to analyze that task in terms of the skills required by teachers who wish to contribute to these ends; and to provide practice in these skills.

The course includes a variety of topics for presentation and discussion, together with related activities. It usually begins with paired introductions, during which two teachers who are strangers are asked to introduce each other to the group, giving details of their current ESL teaching situation and their reasons for taking the course. Given the teaching situations represented in each group of 35-40 candidates, the exercise inevitably reveals the variety and richness within the field. Teachers who work within an elementary school setting are suddenly confronted with the concerns of fellow professionals who teach the parents of those children; those who spend their working days with university-bound students come into contact

with those who plan activities for students in factory settings; details of teaching experiences abroad are shared along with personal experiences of immigration, language learning, and cultural adjustment on the home front.

To these may be added examples of fruitful interaction between different teaching settings--the fact that much of the interesting work presently undertaken in ESL-literacy programs is, in fact, based on techniques developed with young children; teachers of ESL generally become excited by the potential of computer assisted instruction, which till recently was seen as the domain of teachers of high school or adult students. This type of cross-fertilization is further encouraged by suggesting that all candidates make arrangements to visit an ESL program significantly different from their own, and that they read key texts which have now become relevant to their needs for a broader perspective.

What results from this exericse is a reminder of the enormously wide range of the ESL/EFL profession, who its students are, what the purposes are for which they need English, what the settings are in which they learn, who their teachers are, and how these variables influence the selection of techniques and materials for classroom use. What also emerges is the acknowledgement that a basic qualification for a leader is his/her breadth of knowledge of the field, together with a developed skill in assessing the major components of any given setting.

What other attributes should a leader possess? The composite sketch which usually emerges, drawn from the course participant's own experience of people whose leadership skills they admire, is of a confident, clear-thinking, open-minded, energetic, persuasive, encouraging diplomat. Unappreciated are leaders who make them feel inadequate, who provide unasked for, unnecessary, or impractical advice, who are unable to provide required information on relevant sources, and who appear to be more interested in their own glory than in achieving shared goals.

Returning once more to the participants' experience by asking them to reflect on settings with which they are familiar, leadership is presented as an everyday matter, affecting all of them. It becomes a topic on which, collectively and individually, they have articulate and well-founded opinions, which in turn produce criteria against which they can measure not only the performance of those presently in leadership positions, but also their own.

All this is followed by input: information regarding matters such as immigration, newcommer settlement, provision of language teaching and orientation programs, and other legislation affecting ESL students; details as to which agencies, government departments, and institutions are the prime deliverers of services and what means they use to advertise these; finding financial provision for the various types of programs, together with information as to how an individual or an institution can obtain access to such funding, and so on. Many of the participants already know at least some of this information, but it is common to find their knowledge suddenly road-blocked: they may know that there is a formula which determines how many teachers are assigned to a school dictict and what that fomula is, but they do not know what the rationale behind that formula is, who created it, who reviews it, what relationship it bears to other parts of the 'system," or what

7 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

affects its emendation or change. Practice is provided in removing those road-blocks by continually asking "Who?", "When?", "Why?", and refusing to be satisfied by the "It has been decided/agreed upon" kind of response, the one that usually conceals responsibility, and seeks to encourage the acceptance of the unsatisfactory status quo.

The course continues by identifying the major sources of information regarding advances in the ESL profession. Both theoretical and practical issues are examined--further relevant course work, conventions, journals, newsletters, commercially produces materials, networking systems, and so on. With regard to the latter, learning that even the "famous" within ESL make use of their colleagues can come as quite a shock to those who assume, for example, that articles always spring perfectly formed from the pen of a TESOL notable at first sitting. Indeed, the participants are not only surprised but also encouraged to learn of the cooperative effort that usually lies behind "scholarship." They realize that such endeavour and achievement need not be totally out of their own reach if they view all members of the profession as potential sources of information and help through their publications, presentations, and personal contact.

The next major section of the leadership component of the course outlines strategies for influencing people. With classroom teachers as the pivot, we look first at ways in which they can offer support and encouragement to other teachers and then, at how they can impress and persuade those to whom they themselves report. This up-as-well-as-down vision of the hierarchy, too, can be found surprising.

Leading a group of teachers requires that those teachers have confidence in the leader's intention and ability to listen to and facilitate their cause. This does not, of course, imply that "the cause" is necessarily right or reasonable from its outset; both ends and means often need considerable discussion. But such conversations have no chance of reaching a successful conclusion within a relationship of distrust. The onus is on the leader to earn that confidence.

The leader also needs to attend carefully to the "speech act" rather than to a literal interpretation of what is being said, in order to prevent mutual misunderstanding. For example:

--A teacher thinks through a problem, reaches a decision, and wishes confirmation of theat decision before taking action. He or she speaks to the "leader," who interprets the conversation as a request for a major reexamination of all the parameters of the problem. This misinterpretation results in an inappropriate response, which probably also detroys most of the confidence the teacher has in his/her own ability to think the thing through for him/herself.

--A teacher regularly provides the "leader" with detailed reports on work-related activities, on the assumption that the leader expects and requires such information; the leader interprets the volume of information as a signal of insecurity and a request for assistance in programming. In this case, the teacher goes on to increase the detail of the report in response to what he/she perceives as unnecessary concern on the part of the leader

regarding his/her performance.

--A teacher invites the leader to speak on an issue at a staff meeting, recognizing that the leader's presence would provide support to the case he/she wishes to be made and because the teacher can think of no other way to ensure the leader's presence other than as an invited speaker; the leader accepts, responding to the request in order to assist the teacher. A brief conversation between teacher-leader, however may well reveal that what the teacher really needs is some collaborative planning with the leader as to what should be said at the meeting, together with some encouragement from the leader that the teacher could and should play the major role in delivering the message, plus assurance that the leader would be present to demonstrate support for the teacher's position. Collectively, all three of these actions avoid undermining the credibility of the teacher's position, which is always a possible outcome when an outside "expert" takes over.

--A teacher calls a leader to ask advice regarding some small work-related detail, but quickly comes to the real reason for the call: a request for help on a more personal matter. The leader continues to discuss the work-related item because he/she feels inadequately prepared to help with the other, rather than acknowledging that fact and offering to put the individual in touch with somebody who may be able to assist more effectively.

In addition to being an attentive listener, the leader must also be "credible." He or she must establish a reputation as a knowledgeable spokesperson and negotiator for ESL with the people who make policy and budgetary decisions that affect ESL programs. He or she must therefore also be visible, prompt and willing to take on unpopular tasks such as organizing and chairing meetings, introducing and thanking speakers, preparing and making speeches, writing up minutes, drafting letters, preparing newsletter copy, and even (on occasion) planning and organizing conventions.

From this viewpoint, it is necessary that a "leader" make his/her presence known and go on record in documenting his/her position on a wide variety of issues with vigour and consistency. Consider, for example, the question of whether ESL teachers in elementary schools whose programs are organized on a "withdrawal" or "pull-out" basis, should be "the substitute" used to replace absent teachers in "regular" classrooms, with the resulting cancellation of the day's ESL class. A leader must know the legal terms of a teacher's contract--in some cases the penalty for noncompliance in such situations is dismissal--and having decided to comply, should have considered which behavior will produce better long-term results--a sullen, grudging compliance accompanied by muttered complaint, or a cheerful acceptance of the assigned duties, accompanied by a clear statement of the results of repeated class cancellations on the quality and status of the ESL program provision. Our own experience encourages us to maintain that it is no longer enough to win small battles on technicalities, or get requests granted merely to be rid of the suppliants. We need major

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victories, with agreed peace treaties or large negotiated settlements with the terms acceptable to both sides, so that the same issues will not return again and again to haunt us.

Influence increases with the size of the audience one has access to. Most teachers have plenty of confidence in interacting with their students as individuals and en masse. They are also accustomed to discussing work-related matters with colleagues in pairs or small groups. This confidence, however, does not always extend to addressing larger groups of colleagues in more formal settings, and even less frequently to speaking before a crowd of strangers, into a radio microphone, or when faced with a TV camera.

In fact, the resulting panic can be so gripping that trying to ease the pain by preparing a workshop and presenting it to an audience may not be sufficient to comfort the most fearful. Taking the course described, however, requires that every candidate plan and give a 45-minute presentation to a group of about 35 colleagues, also enrolled in ESL inservice courses (not necessarilly this one), as part of a mini-confrence held toward the end of the course. To prepare for third event, there is considerable discussion of what makes a good workshop or presentation, again based on the teachers' own experiences as experienced lecture-goers, confrence attendees, and so on. And again, a collective ideal is created together with a set of criteria against which success may be measured. as in the following examples.

--The presenter demonstrates a firm grasp of the topic, presents it within an overall framework, identifies the crucial areas of concern, and highlights the most inportant factors.

--The presenter accurately gauges the level of awareness and interests of the audience and arranges content, method, and tone of presentation accordingly.

--The presenter organizes his/her material in a coherent, logical manner, displays evidence of preparation and uses whatever audiovisual or other aids are appropriate to the topic and to the workshop audience.

--The presenter encourages audience participation and reponds to audience feedback in a considerate manner, but discourages the monopolists or a general audience takeover.

Considerable discussion, too, is encouraged in areas such as topic selection, organzation of material, timing and use of increasing audience involvement, and to controlling at least the appearance of nervousness. The production of the mini-confernce program itself provides practice in creating an appealing title, in writing a succinct abstract, in specifying the intended audience, and in ensuring the provision of appropriate audiovisual equipment, right down to the seating arrangements and coffee (and though the the latter may be last, they are most certainly not the least).

Since it is presentation skills which are being honed, rather than the ability to demonstrate mastery of new material, topics typically tend to reflect the varied experiences of the candidates, their

strengths and preoccupations. Five examples give an idea of the range, and also the degree of showmanship.

--Let It All Hang Out--Teaching Idioms at the Secondary School Level.

A Little More Madeira, My Dear?--A Look at the Function of Persuasion for the Low Intermediate Adult Student.

Teaching ESL in Isolated Posts--Professional and Personal Challenges of Teaching on an Indian Reserve in Northern Ontario.

A Picture's Worth a Thousand Words--The Use of Still Photographs with Elementary Children.

"For Official Use Only"--What Do I Write There, Miss?--The Reading and Writing Skills Required by Secondary and Adult Level Students to Cope with Today's Form-Loving Bureaucracy.

The mini-conference concept has produced some excellent presentations. What is most satisfying, however, is the knowledge that many of the teachers have approached, and largely overcome, a psychological barrier which had them convinced that they could not sustain a presentation in front of, at the least challenging, a group of peers. For many, there was the discovery that not only were they successful, but that they actually enjoyed the experience; some, indeed, felt able to accept an invitation to repeat their performance at the next provincial, national, or even international TESOL Conference before a much larger audience. The written versions of some have, in consequence, been published. It takes little imagination to think what effect such recognition has on an individual, and on how he or she may be subsequently regarded at a variety of levels.

Despite their relatively high level of literacy, however, teachers, like many other well-educated professionals, are reluctant writers. An informal survey of candidates on the "Specialist" course regularly reveals that an average ESL teacher's daily writing activity is restricted to a cheque, a list, a telephone message or two, a couple of dittos, some blackboard instructions, and maybe once a week, a personal letter. There is general agreement that writing pieces of "extended prose"--more than one paragraph--is an activity to be avoided if at all possible. No one finds writing term papers, reports, formal letters, and the like easy; but surprisingly, most view this fact as a personal inadequacy, not one shared by their peers.

In terms of developing leadership skills, writing is certainly a powerful tool. This course cannot make those who take it into accomplished writers. It can, however, provide considerable information regarding the composing process; well-educated, native and fluent English-speaking adults suggest that writing persuasive, explanatory, and creative prose is not easy. Rather, it demands fierce concentration and revisions which are time-consuming and often frustrating. The results of having grappled with a writing task and produced a well-constructed piece can be sufficiently satisfying--both in terms of clarifying the writers own thoughts to him/herself and of

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communicating these thoughts effectively to others--sufficiently satisfying as to be consoling, if not remunerative.

Writing and all the other topics touched upon in the leadership component are brought together in the final assignment, the socio-politcial essay. For this, candidates are required to choose a challenging situation with which they themselves are now faced. Each is asked to provide a statement of the problem, a summary of the major theoretical issues and/or backrground information necessary to understand the problem, and a step-by-step plan of action as to what might be done to solve it. The skills here involve demonstrating knowledge both of the field and of broader socio-political context of which ESL is part, indicating ability to influence and persuade individuals, (both peers and superiors), ability, and just as importantly, willingness to organize and lead group meetings, and the use of writing as a means of information dissemination and persuasion. Topics which have arisen from the assignment are even more wide-ranging that those chosen for the workshop. They include the following.

A Multi-racial, Multi-ethnic, Leadership Training Camp for Students and Its Aftermath.
Staffing and Programming for Declined ESL Enrollments.
Getting Parents Involved.
The Misplacement of English as a Second Dialect Students at the Secondary School.
Establishing an ESL/Literacy Program in a Mining Town in Northern Ontario.
A School's Response to Polish Refugees.

The whole course is based on the premise that the experienced candidates bring with them is both a possible and a necessary starting point for the development of leadership skills. Leadership is not something which someone else gives one (at least not initially and not now); first and foremost it has to be something one takes upon oneself. The place to begin, therefore, is not in some future setting, but right here and now, regardless of the situation, the other people involved, their personal and power relationships, and the prevailing climate of economic restraint.

Though this leadership component is limited in scope (it shares the 125 hours of class time with major sections on teaching other skills, such as listening comprehension, writing, testing), it is currently an established part of this course and one which, by the nature of the topics it raises and the approach it employs, asks teachers to engage in personal questioning about the extent to which they are prepared to learn and then put to use the skills involved in assuming a leadership role. It also pointed out that the stakes are high if they, as individuals, choose to do nothing. We make no claim that the ideas expressed in this presentation are novel; business and industry have practiced most of them for well over a decade. Within ESL training courses, however, the topics and strategies outlined here are, perhaps, not usual and commonplace; but they must surely be required to continue the training of an individual, especially with regard to his or her contribution to the development of the profession, and to his or her own professional development.

Conclusion

This kind of course can and does give teachers the courage and the skills they need to bring out positive changes in their own work settings and, sometimes, in those of their colleagues. The cummulative effort of many hundreds of ESL techers adopting a proactive, assertive, politically aware stance toward achieving a shared goal--that of establishing a firm institutional base of ESL programs with strong public and governmental support--is a must for the '80's as far as I'm concerned.

As I move into my term as First Vice President of TESOL, I am acutely aware that it is only this broadly-based, concerted effort that will get us what we want for ourselves and for our students.

I didn't stand for election in this organization to be able to answer the question, "Who's in charge here?" with and "I am!" I want us all to answer that question, in whatever circumstaces we are asked it, with a polite but firm, "We are!!"

Note: The several versions of the course described in this presentation have taken place under the auspices of the University of Toronto and York University during the last four years. We would like to thank the many teachers involved for their creative response to the hurdles placed before them.

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"So What Do You Do In There Anyway?"

Dennis Terdy

How frequently are each of us who teach students of limited English proficiency asked the question, "So what do you do in there anyway?" Commonly asked questions of bilingual instructors include: "Do you ever teach English?" or "How long is this going to take?" To further prove the lack of clarity about our fields, those teaching ESL at any level, elementary through adult, are asked the same types of insightful questions as: "Are you still doing what you were doing?", or "So...how many languages do you speak?" These comments clearly point to the fact that few outside our field (ESL and bilingual) can grasp the meaning of what it is we actually do on a day to day basis.

This paper will address three essential areas to better clarify what it is we do presently, and what must be done to clarify our positions in the educational systems in which we serve.

1. Where are we presently and where have we been?
2. What instructional strategies will better prepare our LEP students?
3. Into what areas do our students go after they leave our specialized programs?

Where have we been and where are we presently?

There seems to have been very parallel developments in the fields of both bilingual and ESL education. Each emerged in the late 1960's and early 1970's and expanded rapidly.

In the early years, bilingual education philosophy and programs focussed on areas of ethnic awareness, first language instruction (maintenance programs) and the development and fostering of a child's self esteem. ESL, on the other hand, focussed mainly on audio-lingual methodologies (the mim-mem method), mechanical drilling, and dialogue memorization.

On into the mid to late 1970's, bilingual education, with more experienced instructors, program administrators and programs, began to concentrate on vital aspects of first language (L1) instruction. These included components of identification, sequencing, and appropriate selection of L1 skills. Basically, bilingual instructors began to determine just what to teach and when to teach it.

Simialarly, ESL instruction in the mid to late 1970's began to turn away from audiolingualism and focus more on meaningful communication. The term "communicative competence" came to the forefront while practitioners sought to define ways of structuring the environment to achieve meaningful, communicative situations for language practice. Specialized methodologies and approaches as Counseling Learning/Community Language Learning, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response (TPR), and notional-functionalism began to replace audiolingualism.

Presently, bilingual education programs are in the process of

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defining how much L1 instruction is necessary to adequately prepare a student for all English (L2) instruction. Programs are much more aware of L1 language needs, how much time is needed in the L1 program, and how to better integrate skills needed outside the program. Furthermore, many ESL instructors have become familiar with the various specialized methodologies and approaches, and there is a concerted effort to use them selectively when needed and not to join a "swinging pendulum" approach to achieve instructional success. Within each of these fields there is also a concern to focus on the needs of ESL students beyond their present English instructional situations.

What instructional strategies will better prepare our students?

Over the last 15-20 years, our instructional and curricular approaches have matured and been refined. With this maturation, many in the field realize that discrete "skills" are not what students need alone. They also need strategies , strategies which can be applied generally to the acquisition of listening, speaking, reading and writing well beyond the specialized ESL or bilingual program. Joan Rubin (1975) in an article entitled "What the Good Second Language Learner Can Teach Us" cited several characteristics which can provide ESL instructors insight into oral strategies that they might exploit in second language teaching. Among the characteristics of good L2 learners mentioned are:

1. They are willing and accurate guessers;
2. They practice;
3. They pay attention to form;
4. They monitor their own speech;
5. They attend to meaning;
6. They are not inhibited; and
7. They have an infinite drive to communicate.

Among these, three have significant importance for ESL instructors in providing oral strategies. Strategies which attempt to make L2 learners willing and accurate guessers often are not included in the oral language development component. Activities which encourage guessing for the sake of communication are extremely helpful, since over emphasis on correctness in the early stages of L2 acquisition may not only be discouraging to the L2 learner, but also counter productive.

Another characteristic to emphasize here is the good L2 learner attends to meaning . This notion implies a strategy of looking for the "big picture," that is, deciding what the main point of communication is. Much too often L2 learners concentrate on details of communication, often individual word meanings, without looking for seeing this big picture. The obvious result is a very inefficient listening skill. Students clearly need practice activities which develop this "big picture" approach to listening.

The final characteristic having a significant effect on L2 oral strategies is that the good second language learner has an infinite drive to communicate . Most recently, ESL text books have begun to focus on this aspect of L2 learning. Among those are Look Who's Talking (Bassano, 1981), Idea Bank (Sadow, 1982) and Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class (Moscowitz, 1978). Each of these

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texts sets up loosely structured problem-solving situations with communication as the main goal. Furthermore, minimal or no attention is given to grammatical accuracy. These activities provide extensive communication strategy practicing opportunities for the L2 learner.

Similarly, READING instruction for L2 learners often does not provide sufficient strategies for the massive quantity of reading LEP students are confronted with. Much time is spent on vocabulary development, and basic transfer from oral L2 speech to L2 reading. Little time, however, is spent on developing broader reading strategies (Terdy, 1981).

Harvey Taylor (1983) notes that in order to define what reading actually is, a definition of what it is not is in order. In summary he states:

1. Reading is not passive--it is not the absorbing of information through the eyes by looking sequentially at each word on a page of text.
2. Reading is not an addition process--it is not the adding up of the individual sounds of each letter to pronounce words; not the adding up of those words to pronounce phrases;
3. Reading is not speaking aloud what is on the printed page.
4. Reading is not finding out the complete meaning of every word, idiom, and phrase in a text.
5. Reading is not the analysis of the grammar structures in a sentence or paragraph.

Unfortunately, ESL reading instruction, oftentimes, focusses on two areas, grammar and vocabulary development and perhaps on Taylors' definition of what "reading is not ."

Frank Smith's (1983) comments regarding language learning aptly apply to reading as well. He states, "Language learning (reading in this context) is belittled and distorted by the common assumption that it essentially involves the development of vocabulary and grammar." He clearly implies it embodies much more. In fact, perhaps much more than we can realistically provide alone in the total context of L2 reading skills development program.

In relation to vocabulary, a 1941 study (Smith, 1941) noted that an English speaking 8- year- old- learns about 29 new words each day. A 1977 study (Miller, 1977) showed that 4- year- olds in a New York experimental school learned approximately 20 words each day, or what can be extrapolated to include 1 word per hour since birth! How can ESL instructors keep up with these expectations? It is impossible. The purpose here is not to recommend the elimination of vocabulary instruction, but rather to place it into proper perspective. Students need what might be referred to as "strategies beyond the bilingual dictionary" (D. Terdy, 1982). That is, they need approaches to reading beyond grammar and vocabulary development.

In Taylor (1983), the current views of leaders in the area of psycholinguistics and reading are summarized. These points may more clearly provide insights into the STRATEGIES bilingual and ESL instructors should be providing.

What Good Readers Do When They Read include:

1. They read silently . They do not read the words aloud.
2. They read for some purpose - maybe for news (a newspaper), or some specific fact (a telephone directory for a number of address), or for guidance (a map or instructions on how to operate a new tape recorder), or for pleasure (cartoons, comics, jokes, fiction), or for information on a specific topic (tourist information, school homework assignments, magazine articles, traffic signs).
3. They look at any pictures first.
4. They read any larger, darker words before they read other words.
5. They quickly notice any chapter or section titles .
6. They read selectively , not totally.
7. They skip uninteresting parts of a text. (Some people even skip to the last few pages of a mystery novel to find out the ending of the story before they read the book.)
8. They read many more pages of the language per day than they write .
9. They read much more difficult language than they can write themselves.
10. They almost never use a dictionary . Instead they guess at new words or read further to find contextual clues for the meaning of any unfamiliar words.

Many of these characteristics of "good readers" are embodied in study skill/text book reading strategies embodied in Robinson's SQRRR (1947) and Aukerman's Survey Technique (1972). Each of these two presents approaches to textbook reading with an important preview stage. This stage is one in which the reader briefly looks over the reading and hypothesizes about possible content. Each approach asks the student to relate his/her own experience base to the reading task as well. Reader's keys, including bold print, italics, subtitles, and pictures are also used in these approaches to facilitate reading comprehension. The main points represented by "good reader" characteristics and these survey strategies are that, as well as these two reading approaches, they include much more for the LEP student that can be easily taken beyond the specialized ESL or bilingual program.

The area of WRITING is probably the most regularly neglected skill. Ironically, as content areas begin to emerge (5th grade and higher), the writing demands placed on all students also increase dramatically. Three very common reasons for avoiding writing instruction may include the following:

1. Errors: Teachers often ask, "What do I do with all those errors. Do I correct them, only mark them, use colored pens to indicate them? (Colors don't make a difference; an error is an error.)

2. Writing Difficulty for the Instructor . Oftentimes, writing is avoided because the instructor also has the most difficulty with this skill. In this case, having maximum control over the curriculum, the instructor deminishes the role of writing in the curriculum first!

3. An Effective, Interesting Approach . Difficulty determining how to approach writing also causes teachers to avoid the task. "Where do I start?" How many questions about My Summer Vacation...can be asked?

In Writing: Teachers and Children at Work , Donald Graves (1983) aptly cites the role of the "writing process" to minimize these 3

excuses for avoiding writing instruction. Developed from an NIE research grant for L1 English speakers, Grave's comments can most appropriately apply to second language writing instruction as well. He cites four areas as crucial in the writing process program:

1. Students must talk about ideas first, Vivian Amel (1983) notes that writing is actually the "result of an idea dveloping"
2. Consider the audience. Students write to one audience generally, the teacher. This clearly creates communicative limitations.
3. Have a purpose for writing. Graves uses "voice" to address this. For what reason has the writer decided on this topic. Graves notes that the stronger the commitment or voice, the stronger the written product.
4. Good Writers go for ideas first and mechanics (spelling, grammar, etc.) last. This finding is also substantiated by Mina Schaunessy (1977) and Vivian Zamel (1982, 1983).

With strategies of good writers implied in the development of a writing process approach, the question again arises: Are we, in the fields of ESL and bilingual instruction, aware of these, or rather do we provide these strategies in our approaches for the development of this much needed writing skill?

Where do students go after they leave the LEP instructional program?

In the maturation process of the field of LEP instruction, security within our respective fields, ESL and bilingual, naturally (hopefully) occurs. This security, knowing what is taught and how, allows us the freedom to look beyond our classrooms... to where our students go after they leave our programs. Anna Uhl Chamot in "How to Plan a Transfer Curriculum from Bilingual to Mainstream Instruction" (1983) mentions 6 essential points in looking beyond the specialized LEP program.

1. Become familiar with the complete elementary school L2 (English-only) curriculum.
2. Correlate L1 curriculum skills and concepts to L2 curriculum for equivalent grade levels.
3. Initiate transfer instruction in linquistically less demanding subjects such as art, math, music, and physical education.
4. In content area lessons, emphasize comprehension and communication rather than linguistic correctness.
5. Use L1 to: provide advance organizers to aid learning; preview and review lessons.
6. Develop study skills through listening activities, silent reading comprehension activities, and test-taking strategies.

These comments were made in relation to a bilingual instructional program model. However, they can be applied most appropriately to an ESL program model as well.

In an analysis of 3 major English basal reading programs (for Native speakers K-3) and 3 major elementary school ESL series (K-3), (Dew and Terdy, 1981) some surprising results surfaced. The basal reading series universally and systematically began developing not only basic reading skills (as decoding), but also included study skills,

handwriting, and introduction to literary types (poetry, songs). In addition, tasks requiring inferring as well as critical analysis were also surprisingly introduced.

When the 3 major ESL text series were analyzed, two of these texts included virtually none of the skills of the English basal program, while only one ESL series included merely 30-40% of these skills. If the rationale for the exclusion of these skills by the ESL texts was because LEP students needed higher level of English language proficiency, it was unfortunate. It was unfortunate because by grade 3 (after 3 years), most students are exiting from their ESL programs. When would the LEP students get these skills? They would get them suddenly and intensively much too late... upon exit!

At the secondary as well as adult levels, the Chamot "transfer" points are equally applicable. Most importantly, LEP instructors need to know the linguistic needs of the LEP students in the transfer classes. In 1982, Sue Morrisroe of Maine West High School, (Morrisroe, 1982) surveyed the regular English department staff at her school. What she found in this informal survey was not surprising. The regular teachers expected LEP students to have well developed themes, with correct use of writing mechanics as well as correct use of English grammar. What was significant about this survey was that the expectations of receiving teachers were asked! Although the results were not profound, the indications were that the ESL teacher should have covered some material on theme development and mechanics etc. within the context of the ESL program. Furthermore, the correct grammar comment indicates there may be a need to inservice the transfer class teacher on common English L2 acquisition errors which many never be fully eliminated from the LEP students writing.

As Jean Handscomb noted in her speech, "Who's in Charge Here?" (1984), bilingual and ESL instructors at all levels need to take the local leadership role. In this case they must take the leadership role in transitioning from ESL or bilingual programs to "regular" programs. They must identify the necessary skills and prepare students before they leave.

ESL programs in adult (basic) education are presented with multiple variables. Not only are the program locations far removed from a regular campus or community college setting, the students' English needs and interests beyond the ESL program are infinite.

Nevertheless, for academic transitioning, the Chamot principles still apply to this adult context as well. In the final adult ESL program levels, adult (basic) ESL students need to be prepared for a gradual transition. The ESL instructor's program needs to include many aspects of study skills, composition writing, textbook reading and note taking in order to provide adequate transition program beyond the adult ESL class to more specialized training or academically oriented programs.

Conclusion

"So What Do You Do In There Anyway?" The question is still not easy to answer. Nevertheless, bilingual and ESL instructors at all levels are charged with 3 tasks:

1. Know the methodologies of the respective fields as well as the curriculum fully.

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2. Know and teach strategies in the essential skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing.
3. Know what skills students need upon exit from the LEP instructional program.

Only with the knowledge of these three areas can we adequately and comfortably answer the question about what it is we actually do in our programs and classrooms.

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Cloze Residual Gain: A Procedure for Measuring Information Gain in ESL Reading Comprehension

Patricia German and Kyle Perkins

Abstract

This paper reports the use of the residual gain statistic in ESL reading comprehension research. The residual gain statistic is used to assess individual differences in improvement which accrue from learning and training. Subjects are equated on the basis of the pre-training measure, and the influence of regression effects are reduced.

In this study half the subjects scored higher than predicted on a cloze test after reading the unmutilated passage. The other half scored lower than predicted. The predictions were based on cloze scores before the subjects read the intact passage. The analysis identified a pool of superior improvers and a pool of inferior improvers.

1. Introduction

Previous research has shown that in testing reading comprehension it is necessary to distinguish between general language competence and/or common world knowledge, and information gleaned from the passage by the reader during the reading process. The usual paradigm for this type of research involves administering a test, providing the subjects with some sort of training, and, finally, administering the test again. Subtracting the first score from the second would give a measure of information gain. According to Harrison and Dolan (1979:19), "it seems that to a certain extent the effects of overall language competence are canceled out, and that IG {information gain} scores offer a truer index of the extent to which the reader has assimilated new information."

The notion of gain scores is a radical departure from the usual methods of assessing reading comprehension, whereby a test is normally administered after the subjects have read the test passage. The importance of and need for gain scores have become increasingly more apparent due to the growing body of research literature on the differing amounts of pre-knowledge about the test passage the subjects bring to the testing hall, and due to the fact that the data from a comprehension test administered after reading reflect both the knowledge possessed before reading the test passage, plus the information gleaned while reading. If we are to get a clear idea of what our reading tests measure, we need some approach to separate prior knowledge from acquired knowledge during the reading process.

Traditionally, gain scores have been analyzed by two different approaches: crude gain and residual gain. Determining crude gain

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involves subtracting the pre-test scores from the post-test scores, and the difference between the two is called crude gain. There are at least two major problems with crude gain. First, subjects with comparatively lower pre-test scores tend to make higher gains as measured by post-tests than subjects with average and above-average pre-test scores, and subjects with comparatively higher pre-test scores tend to make lower gains on the post-tests--a sort of plateau or "ceiling" effect. Second, reading research has shown that negative correlations obtain between initial and final status in reading improvement when measured by crude gain (Bloomer 1962; Chansky and Bregman 1957; Kamman 1963; Ramsey 1960; Ranson 1955; and Schneyer 1963).

The difficulties with crude gain have been met with the residual gain statistic developed by Manning and DuBois (1962). Residual gain studies are used to assess individual differences in improvement which accrue from learning and training. The procedure statistically equates subjects on the basis of pre-learning or pre-training measurement, and it does not require that the pre- and post-measures be expressed in equal interval scales. In addition, the influence of regression effects upon the measurement of improvement are reduced.

As previously mentioned, research has indicated that negative correlations may obtain between initial status and crude gain in reading studies. Manning and DuBois (1962:290) believe that such spuriously negative coefficients can be overcome by using residual statistics.

> These difficulties, encountered in measuring change by the absolute difference between two test scores (crude gain), would probably be overcome if there were assurance that increments in scores on both initial and final tests were equivalent, that the two tests have the same zero point, and that the tests are valid and reliable at all levels of proficiency.

The purpose of this study was to apply the residual gain technique to reading gains measured by the cloze procedure in an ESL context. Rankin and Dale (1969:19) provide the following explanation of residual gain:

> Residual gains may be defined as the deviation of a subject's post-test score from the post-test score that was predicted from his pre-test score, or the deviation of scores from the regression line of final on initial scores. The residual gain formula is expressed as:
>
> $$\text{Residual gain} = z(2) - r(12)\, z(1)$$
>
> where $z(2)$ is the post-score in z-score form (z-scores or normalized standard scores equal the number of standard deviations the raw score is found away from the mean score), $r(12)$ is the correlation between pre- and post-tests, and $z(1)$ is the pre-test score in z-score form. By the use of this technique, subjects are statistically equated with respect to initial status on the pre-test, and the correlation between

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residual gain and initial status is zero.

The following research hypotheses were tested:

1. There is a significant difference in pre- and post-test means.
2. There is a significant correlation between crude and residual gains.
3. There is a negative correlation between pre-test initial status and crude gain.
4. There is no significant correlation between crude gains and the criterion measure.
5. There is no significant correlation between residual gains and the criterion measure.

2. Methodology

2.1 Subjects . This research was conducted in the Department of Linguistics at Southern Illinois University. Thirty-four foreign students enrolled in Linguistics 101, Basic Composition for Foreign Students, served as unpaid volunteers fro the project. Native languages included Chinese, Malay, Spanish, Greek, Arabic, Thai, Yoruba, Swedish, Urdu, Brunei, and Korean.

2.2 Materials . We constructed a thirty-five item cloze test by deleting every eighth word. The passage was 348 words long, and the topic was Finland's form of government. The first and last sentences were left unmutilated. Exact-word scoring was employed.

The cloze test was administered to two sections of Linguistics 101. Working time was forty minutes. One week later, the subjects were given an intact version of the entire passage to read and study for twenty minutes. The passages were collected, and fresh copy of the same cloze test was administered the second time; forty minutes was allotted for the test. Exact word scoring was also used to mark the post-test. No indication was given during the pre-testing that the subjects would be tested again. The California Achievement Test Reading Comprehension section (CAT-R) was used as a criterion measure.

3. Analysis and Results

The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. The observed reliability coefficients were somewhat lower than we like for research of this nature. One heartening note is that the reliability of the post-cloze (.77) was higher than the reliability of the pre-cloze (.53). This finding runs counter to what one would expect because gain measures entail using a test twice and therefore there are two opportunities for measurement error to creep in. We believe that the subjects' reading the unmutilated passage and familiarization with the cloze procedure better enabled them to utilize the inherent redundancy in the text, enabling them to analyze by synthesizing better the second time around. The result is that the post-test data more truly exhibit the diversity of the subjects' processing ability, hence better person separability or reliability.

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Correlation coefficients for the cloze and criterion measure are reported in Tables 2 and 3 (corrected for attenuation). Again we were surprised by the low magnitude of correlation between the cloze and the reading comprehension test, because cloze is usually a robust measure of reading comprehension.

Hypothesis 1 was tested by submitting the pre- and post-test data to a t-test for dependent samples. The t-value of 11.77 is significant at the .01 level for 33 degrees of freedom and demonstrates that the cloze procedure is a highly sensitive measure of reading gains.

We computed the cloze residual gain scores following Tracy and Rankin (1967:364):

1. Convert both pre- and post-reading test scores to z-scores for each student.
2. Compute the r (correlation coefficient) between pre- and post-test raw scores.
3. Obtain predicted post-test z-scores by multiplying the correlation coefficient by the pre-test z-score for each student.
4. Subtract the predicted post-test z-score from the obtained post-test z-score for each student.

In addition, a second set of residual gain scores was computed based on the predicted regressions of the post-test raw scores on the pre-test raw scores (Taschow 1969). The results are presented in Table 4.

With the z-score residual gain statistics, the pre- and post-test scores are expressed in comparable units; it is therefore easy to compare residual gain with crude gain for particular subjects. Let's consider the six subjects who scored 10 on the pre-test, i.e., subjects 9, 12, 17, 18, 22, and 24 and the two subjects who scored 20 on the pre-test, i.e., subjects 3 and 29.

The six subjects who scored 10 on the pre-test had the pre z-score -.805 and were predicted to have the post z-score -.282. The predicted regression post-score was 21.465. Subject 9 had a post z-score of -.562 (a residual gain of -.280) and a crude post score of 20 (a residual gain of -1.465). Subject 12 had a post z-score of +.017 (a residual gain of +.299) and a crude post score of 23 (a residual gain of +1.535). Subject 17 had a post z-score of +1.369 (a residual gain of +1.651) and a crude post score of 30 (a residual gain of +8.535). Subject 18 had a post z-score of -.176 (a residual gain of +.106) and a crude post score of 22 (a residual gain of +.535). Subject 22 had a post z-score of +1.176 (a residual gain of +1.458) and a crude post score of 29 (a residual gain of +7.535). Subject 24 had a post z-score of -.948 (a residual gain of -.666) and a crude post score of 18 (a residual gain of -3.465).

The two subjects who scored 20 on the pre-test had the pre z-score +2.340 and were predicted to have the post z-score of +.819. The predicted regression post score was 27.118. Subject 3 had a post z-score of +1.176 (a residual gain of +.357) and a crude post score of 29 (a residual gain of +1.882). Subject 29 had a post z-score of -.176 (a residual gain of -.995) and a crude post score of 22 (a residual gain of -5.118).

Taschow (1969:29) offers an explication of the residual gain for the predicted regressions of the post-test raw scores on the pre-test

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raw scores--an explanation which also serves by analogy for the z-score residual gain:

> The graphical presentation of the crude gain method is based on y=x which for the purpose of discussion is called the zero line or no-learning line. Progress in student's proficiency is noted by a plus sign before the crude gain number and with its position above the zero line; no learning progress is indicated by ±0 and with its position directly on the zero line; and failure of improvement is marked by a minus sign before the crude gain number and with its position below the zero line.
>
> The graphical method of the residual gain procedure shows the regression line determined by its intercept and its slope. At any given value of x (pre-test), the height of the regression line tells the average value of y (post-test). Based on the linear regression formula $y=a+bx$, where x is zero, y is equal to a which indicates where the line intercepts the y=axis, and b, the slope or regression coefficient indicates how much y changes with a unit change in x. A student's residual gain in found by locating the interesting lines on the graph for the student's x and y scores. The meeting point of the interesting lines falls on, above, or below the regression line. If the point which represents the student's performance falls directly on the line, the student has performed as predicted. If the point falls above the regression line, the distance between its position and the regression line indicates that the student's performance was higher than predicted on the basis of the pre-test score and a plus sign precedes the residual gain score. If the point falls below the regression line, the distance between its position and the regression line indicates that the student's performance was lower than predicted on the basis of his pre-test scores and a minus sign precedes his residual gain score. Thus, a minus sign does not spell failure of improvement, but tells that the student did not yet improve as much as was expected upon prediction.

Hypothesis 2--there is a significant correlation between crude and residual gains--was confirmed; the obtained correlation coefficient is .96 which is significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 3--there is a negative correlation between pre-test initial status and residual gains--was confirmed. The correlation between initial status and the z-score residual gain is -.003, and between initial status and predicted regression residual gain, -.42 which is significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 4--there is no significant correlation between crude gains and the criterion measure--was confirmed; the obtained

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coefficient is .13.

Hypothesis 5--there is no significant correlation between residual gains and the criterion measure--was confirmed; the obtained coefficient was .19.

We did not expect high magnitudes of correlation between the gain scores and the criterion measure because they measure different constructs. The gain scores relate to the amount of information gleaned during the reading process, and the criterion measure tests identification of main ideas, supporting details, inferencing, and judgment.

The purpose of this research was to utilize the residual gain statistic in ESL reading research. It permits us to measure precisely the differences in improvement of those who have received the same experimental treatment and who have been equated statistically on the basis of the pre-test instrument. Correlates of change in proficiency are important in the evaluation of reading pedagogy and the second language learning theory. An important characteristic of this procedure is that the experimenter can partition prior knowledge from that knowledge acquired by reading. In this particular study half of the subjects' performance was higher than predicted on the basis of pre-test scores and half of the subjects' performance was lower than predicted. Thus, the sample is divided into those who need remediation and those who are ready to move on to other skills. In addition, a pool of superior "improvers" and pool of inferior "improvers" have been identified for research on the speed and quality of learning in reading.

TABLE 1

Descriptive Statistics

Test	No. of Subjects	No. of Items	Mean	SD	SEM	KR-20 r_{tt}	100-Item r_{tt}
Pre-Cloze	34	35	12.56	3.18	2.18	.53	.76
Post-Cloze	34	35	22.91	5.18	2.48	.77	.91
CAT-R	34	44	33.03	5.23	2.51	.77	.88

Post-Cloze, Pre-Cloze $t = 11.77$, df 33, $p < .01$

TABLE 2

Correlation Matrix

	1.	2.	3.
1. Pre-Cloze	1.00		
2. Post-Cloze	.35*	1.00	
3. CAT-R	.22	.26	1.00

* $p < .05$, df 32, two-tailed test

TABLE 3

Correlation Matrix
Corrected for Attenuation

	1.	2.	3.
1. Pre-Cloze	1.00		
2. Post-Cloze	.54*	1.00	
3. CAT-R	.34*	.34*	1.00

*$p < .05$, df 32, two-tailed test

Table 4

The z-Score Method for Obtaining Residual Gains

Student	X Pre-Raw Score	z_x Pre z	Y Post Raw Score	z_y Post z	z_x Predicted Post z	$z_y \cdot x$ Residual Gain	Crude Gain	Regression of Post-on Pre-test Predicted	Regression of Post-on Pre-test Residual Gain
1	11	- .491	15	-1.527	-.172	-1.355	4	22.031	-7.031
2	8	-1.434	16	-1.333	-.502	- .381	8	20.335	-4.335
3	20	+2.340	29	+1.176	+.819	+ .357	9	27.118	+1.882
4	14	+ .453	20	- .562	+.159	- .721	6	23.726	-3.726
5	11	- .491	24	+ .210	-.172	+ .382	13	22.031	+1.969
6	17	+1.396	23	+ .017	+.489	- .472	6	25.422	-2.422
7	13	+ .138	14	-1.720	+.048	-1.768	1	23.161	-9.161
8	13	+ .138	16	-1.333	+.048	-1.381	3	23.161	-7.151
9	10	- .805	20	- .562	-.282	- .280	10	21.465	-1.465
10	9	-1.119	18	- .948	-.392	- .556	9	20.900	-2.900
11	14	+ .453	21	- .369	+.159	- .528	7	23.726	-2.726
12	10	- .805	23	+ .017	-.282	+ .299	13	21.465	+1.535
13	12	- .176	19	- .755	-.062	- .693	7	22.596	-3.596
14	11	- .491	25	+ .403	-.172	+ .575	14	22.031	+2.969
15	16	+1.082	20	- .562	+.379	- .941	4	24.857	-4.857
16	14	+ .453	30	+1.369	+.159	+1.210	16	23.726	+6.274
17	10	- .805	30	+1.369	-.282	+1.651	20	21.465	+8.535
18	10	- .805	22	- .176	-.282	+ .106	12	21.465	+ .535
19	14	+ .453	28	+ .983	+.159	+ .824	14	23.726	+4.274
20	13	+ .138	28	+ .983	+.048	+ .935	15	23.161	+4.839
21	12	- .176	20	- .562	-.062	- .500	8	22.596	-2.596
22	10	- .805	20	+1.176	-.282	+1.458	19	21.465	+7.535
23	11	- .491	24	+ .210	-.172	+ .382	13	22.031	+1.969
24	10	- .805	18	- .948	-.282	- .666	8	21.465	-3.465
25	8	-1.434	16	-1.333	-.502	- .831	8	20.335	-4.335
26	13	+ .138	29	+1.176	+.048	+1.128	16	23.161	+5.839
27	7	-1.748	15	-1.527	-.612	- .915	8	19.769	-4.769
28	15	+ .767	23	+ .017	+.268	- .251	8	24.292	-1.292
29	20	+2.340	22	- .176	-.819	- .995	2	27.118	-5.118
30	19	+2.025	29	+1.176	+.709	+ .467	10	26.553	+2.447
31	15	+ .767	28	+ .983	+.268	+ .715	13	24.292	+3.708
32	11	- .491	33	+1.948	-.172	+2.120	22	22.031	+10.969
33	12	- .176	28	+ .983	-.062	+1.045	16	22.596	+5.404
34	14	+ .453	24	+ .210	+.159	+ .051	10	23.726	+ .274

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Tutoring Without a Net

Virginia Gibbons and Suzanne Leibman

Introduction

In a large, strictly organized tutoring program, many diagnostic tools are used, and teachers provide tutors with detailed information on students' specific grammatical or writing problems, often with detailed instructions on how to correct them (exercises, relevant chapters of textbooks, etc.). This makes the tutor's job, if not easy, at least structured and clearcut. However, not all tutoring programs are this sophisticated, and not all students fit so easily into a slot of prescribed exercises and canned handouts. A great deal of tutoring is done without a net--that is, with the tutor's instincts, techniques and common sense guiding the sessions rather than a structured, predetermined lesson plan. Our presentation hopes to make known to other TESOL teachers four techniques with which we have become familiar through our experience as writing tutors for both ESL and English-speaking students: writing histories, brainstorming, timed writing, and oral proofreading.

Writing History

Students often arrive at their first tutoring session embarassed, hostile, and anxious. A frustrated ESL student may proclaim, "In my language I write beautifully; I can't put my thoughts into English." A more advanced student's complaint may be an inability to find a topic, to understand what the teacher wants, to be interesting enough, or to sound intelligent enough. If the tutor is willing to listen to these tales of woe, the student will feel more comfortable about working with a tutor and will perhaps be able to focus more clearly on specific areas that s/he needs to work on.

This type of conversation can easily produce a writing history, a record of the student's past experiences, failures, and successes jotted down in the student's folder by the tutor as the student talks. In an intial session, that gives the student something to talk about that s/he knows very well, gives the tutor a chance to get to know the student a little better, and establishes a base for both to work from in future sessions. The tutor asks open-ended questons: "Could you tell me a little about the writing courses you took in your country in high school?" "What is it you dislike most about writing?" "Why?" It's important not to respond to the student's answers in a judgmental way, or to pop up with instant solutions to problems that the student has been plagued with for a long time. Empathic listening, responding with phrases like "I see that would be difficult," "That's a problem many people have," "English certainly is a confusing language, even to native speakers," coupled with quietly making notes of the student's comments, will be more likely to put the student at ease. Tell the

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student that some notes will be taken on his/her feelings and experiences about writing; many people are made uneasy by seeing their words being taken down, and the student should know that this is not just one more evaluation of his/her inadequacy. In future sessions, as the student makes progress, this initial record can be referred to as a measure of the strides the student has made. When a problem arises, the tutor can use the writing history as reassurance that the student has recognized this problem before and with work will be able to overcome it.

Brainstorming

Another helpful "without a net" activity, brainstorming, again involves the student talking and the tutor taking notes. This time, however, the student is answering leading questions the tutor has given him on a given writing topic. This technique rebuts the often-heard cry, "I have nothing to say," by proving to the student that orally he has a great deal to say. Then it is a little easier to show him that whatever he can say, he can also probably write. The tutor should write down what the student says in his own words as much as possible. As in taking a writing history, there should be no criticism or evaluation; write it down no matter how it sounds, or how much sense it makes. It's much easier to scratch things out on a list without being threatened than it is to hear one's spoken words attacked. After a list of ideas is made, the student looks it over and with the tutor's guidance eliminates what is redundant or awkward. This can be a good beginning in getting a student to begin to write a composition on his own at home, using the results of the brainstorming session, and gives him some insight into the process of writing.

This type of technique may give a tutor writer's cramp, and may seem to turn the tutor into a glorified stenographer, but these objections are overcome by the value of having the student think out loud for him/herself in an atmosphere of support and guidance.

Timed Writing

Timed writing is an easy and effective way to start tutoring sessions, or to encourage the unprepared student to write. This exercise of writing for five to ten minutes on a given topic by tutor and student was originally conceived as a warm up fluency exercise, but we have expanded its use to diagnosis and illustration.

Teacher preparation for timed writing is minimal and begins with making about twenty-five timed writing cards. On an index card, write the title of a very broad topic. The topics should be familiar to students and easy to develop by description, narrative, or exposition. Students should also be able to subdivide the topic. Examples of successful topics for us are Summer (or Winter) in Chicago, Vending Machines, and Exercise. It's a good idea to keep track of the success of topics and to eliminate any that prove difficult to develop quickly. Then place the cards together face down.

Introduce the task before presenting the pack of cards to the student. To calm students who are nervous about writing spontaneously,

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quickly, and/or under the eye of authority, you might want to say, "Let's both try some writing for just five minutes. Pick a card, any card." The game-like rules provide a comforting light structure, some student control, and the assurance that the tutor is busy, not watching for errors.

When time is up, ask the student to stop, and in the same game-like fashion, exchange papers. Instead of waiting for evaluation, the student reads a model produced under the same circumstances. For students who rarely read English outside of textbooks, this provides a brief, nonthreatening sample of exposition. Thus, I usually try (not too hard) to produce writing personally based, yet with a direct thesis statement and, of course, some scratching out. Often this reading provokes questions and comments on topics ranging from vocabulary to organization patterns, misspellings, and grammatical errors. These comments provide the tutor with additional insight into the student's knowledge of writing, and, of course, are an excellent transition into examination of the student's writing.

Meanwhile, since you have already glanced over the student's paper, you can begin mutual examination with compliments. Even if you are as vague as "I'm glad I had a chance to see your good ideas about this," you lay a positive foundation for the tutoring relationship. The first glance also allows you to develop a tentative diagnosis which oral proofreading by the student will further solidify. Then begin oral proofreading, and explore questions and comments of the student.

With the diagnosis gained from the timed writing, you can now start working with the student on particular problems. If they are sentence-level, you can use samples from the timed writing in your discussion. If the discussion focuses on organization or development, use the sample as a nucleus for further brainstorming or expansion. Thus, along with brainstorming, timed writing can become a technique for exploration of topics used by the student alone.

Oral Proofreading

In oral proofreading, a student reads a paper aloud after being requested to pay attention to grammatical and surface error. To use this as a diagnostic and training technique, the student should use a completely unmarked paper. If one is unavailable, use a timed writing. As a last resort, a text proofreading exercise can be used. The diagnosis provided by oral proofreading is more specific than that allowed by examination of the product alone, for the tutor has the opportunity to observe the degree of the student's ignorance of the error. This can range from simple carelessness, caught easily at the second look, to lack of knowledge of a grammatical rule. Simultaneously, the training develops specific ways for the student to accomplish the vague and, therefore, neglected task of "looking over the paper before handing it in."

The success of oral proofreading is based upon two assumptions: first, that most students speak better than they write, and, second, that after the writing task is completed, it is time to get the monitor moving in the student's favor. Before beginning, the student should be made aware of the objectives of the task, and how these objectives can be met. Reading aloud enforces the slower, word-by-word reading

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required of proofreading. Paying attention to reading only what is written provokes additional concentration. Tell the student there will be no intervention during the reading, but that the student may stop and raise questions.

With these instructions, the student reads the paper aloud. Many students catch errors as they read, and the improvement can be quite dramatic. If this is the case, the demonstration is often enough to encourage the student to use the occasion to raise questions or talk about fears about committing error. Here you can reassure the student when writing is correct and/or meaningful. It can be comforting to a student to know that s/he can find errors by proofreading rather than trying to avoid error too early in the writing process.

Some students read the paper as written and do not notice errors. After the first reading is finished, ask the student to look at particular sentences again, perhaps with attention to a specific error. The degree to which this technique is successful may help determine the amount of practice under more controlled circumstances. After this practice, oral proofreading becomes a review and reinforcement technique.

Another large group of students read correctly, overlooking written errors. You can train these students through requests for repetition, echoing, pointing, or circling exercises. The students then become more aware of their written words and correct accordingly. If this is successful, oral proofreading can save the tutor and student from involved explanation of grammar and hours of useless controlled exercises.

If the practice alone does not diminish errors, more specific techniques can be used. For run-on sentences, ask students to check for a period when their voices drop and stop, thus relying on their acquisition of sentence intonation patterns. For the opposite problem, fragments, ask students to read the last sentence first and proceed backwards. The slowness of reading aloud, combined with the removal of context, often makes the student aware of the fragment's "incompleteness." For specific errors, such as omitted -s markers, ask students to do their own echoing and pointing, to emphasize proofreading's mechanical nature and isolate problem areas from larger context. Through this training, the tutor can help students free themselves from total dependence on another's corrections of writing problems to recognition and control on their own.

Conclusion

All of the four techniques described here have one obvious common intention, to change a wasted session to one of foundation for the tutoring relationship. Another, more important one, is to provide a basis for the end of that relationship by helping students develop their own control and awareness of their writing. Each technique demands the student's active participation in tutoring, so the student begins to assume responsibility. And with effective demonstration and encouragement, students begin to adopt and internalize the techniques for themselves. When a student can say, as one once did to me at a session's end, that all I did was ask questions, and that he could do that for himself, you know your job is almost done.

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"Wholistic" Evaluation of Language Minority Students in Elementary and Secondary Schools

Margo H. Gottlieb

Impact evaluation assesses the extent to which a program produces change in the desired direction in the target population (Rossi, Freeman, and Wright, 1979). It is utilization-focused when the findings directly effect rational decision-making (Patton, 1978). We, as English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual education teachers, need to link program implementation with specified student outcomes. The outcomes discussed in this paper center on data available from language minority student characteristics, elementary and secondary assessment measures, and teachers.

"Wholistic" evaluation, as the term implies, is a totalistic approach. Its totality is derived from an amalgamation of linguistics and the applied, interrelated fields of sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, second language acquisition, and second language testing. Each of these disciplines has contributed to the identification of significant factors that impact limited English proficient (LEP) student performance. What is necessary, at this point in time, is a framework that captures these variables and presents them in a logical way.

This paper addresses the issues surrounding the assessment of LEP students from both a theoretical and a practical perspective. It has four subsections: 1. theoretical considerations; 2. second language assessment procedures; 3. student centered evaluation; and 4. a model for second language assessment and achievement. Parts 1 and 2 report the current state of the art in the literature; Part 3 discusses the educational implications of the research; and Part 4 describes an assessment model based on student and teacher evaluation.

Theoretical Considerations

In recent years, language proficiency as a single linguistic notion of grammatical competence has expanded to include sociocultural, psychological, and paralinguistic dimensions. The emergence of this multiple trait construct known as communicative competence is attributed, in part, to the rejection of the 1950's structuralist conception of language. The initial criticism of structuralism centered on its inadequacy to account for the complexity of language, its inability to tap creative language construction, and its inability to recognize two levels of language, one underlying the other (Chomsky, 1965). Later, objection to the Chomskyan view was based on its failure to explain the communicative functions of language (Halliday, 1973) and its disregard for the sociocultural and psycholinguistic aspects of language interaction (Hymes, 1971).

Today, competency of form (grammar) is recognized as part of the same developmental scheme as competency of function (use). Underlying linguistic knowledge is subject to the application of appropriateness

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and acceptability and thus is integrated into communicative competence. These theoretical precepts form the foundation for subsequent model building.

Many of the models offered in the literature uphold the divisible hypothesis of second language ability; that is, each of the defined components represents an autonomous factor contributing to overall language proficiency. Hernandez-Chavez, Burt, and Dulay (1978) have devised a three dimensional matrix of 64 independently measurable cells. Similarly, Noa, Silverman, and Russell (1976) depict language proficiency as a cubic representation of three domains, each subdivided into four facets. Canale and Swain's (1980) model identifies three major features of communicative competence.

In a construct validation study of Canale and Swain's hypothesized model, Bachman and Palmer (1982) examine the three proposed components of communicative competence. Using a multitrait-multimethod design, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competencies were tested on adult, non-native English speakers, with four varied measures. The results yielded a revised model of one general and two specific traits.

The evidence of the presence of a general factor across all measures lends support to the unitary hypothesis of second language ability. This alternate, rival hypothesis proposes the existence of indivisible rather than divisible competence. In Language in Education: Testing the Tests (1978), Oller, Stump, Striff, Gunnarson, and Perkins report studies that indicate test performance is primarily dependent on global language proficiency. Oller and Hinofotis (1976; 1980) further elaborate that for adult second language learners, the g-factor of intelligence is indistinguishable from communicative competence, the ability to use a language.

Cummins (1980) recognizes Oller's position that there is a single language proficiency factor directly correlated with IQ and academic achievement, however, this factor does not account for those manifestations of language exhibited in informal, social settings. In the theoretical framework that Cummins offers, communicative proficiency is conceptualized along two perpendicular continuums (1981;1983). The first, range of contextual support, is expressed at one extreme as context-embedded, face-to-face communication situations and, at the other end, as context reduced communication. Whereas in context-embedded situations, the negotiation of meaning is achieved through interpersonal interaction, in context-reduced communication, the paralinguistic and pragmatic support systems have been removed. The second continuum relates the developmental degree of cognitive involvement in communicative activities, from undemanding to demanding.

The usefulness of the current theories of communicative competence in explaining the nature of language proficiency of LEP students has been questioned. In fact, in this review of the research literature, it becomes obvious that the definition of language proficiency and/or communicative competence is elusive at best. However, if ESL and bilingual education teachers are responsible for the evaluation of their students, they must be cognizant of the role theory plays in the development of teaching methodologies and assessment instruments.

Linguistic theory provides us with perspectives and viewpoints which, in turn, lead to the formulation of new instructional strategies and specific rationales for testing. A particular conceptualization of what constitutes language proficiency not only influences measurement,

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but subsequently, determines the kinds of treatment given to students (Genesee, 1984).

Second Language Assessment Procedures

Historically, linguistic theory has influenced second language assessment (Carroll, 1953; Davies, 1968; Upshur, 1973). This notion is evident in Spolsky's (1978) classification scheme which identifies three overlapping, yet distinct, periods of second language testing: 1. prescientific; 2. psychometric-structuralistic; and 3. integrative-sociolinguistic. Each trend has contributed to the development of distinct procedures for evaluating LEP students.

During the prescientific period, evaluation of language skills was dependent on the expertise of the teacher. Language testing was confined to paper and pencil tasks (e.g. translation); oral examination was considered the exception. Rating was subjective with no defined criteria on which to base judgment. The intuition of the teacher was the primary source of impressionistic evaluation data (Madsen, 1983).

The psychometric-structuralistic trend, emerging in the 1950's, was marked by the joint contribution of behavioral psychologists and structural linguists. Both language and measurement were brought under scientific scrutiny. The demand for objectivity, precision, and control was met by statistical techniques, assuring test reliability and validity.

The insistence upon measuring direct, observable behavior stemmed from the theory that language learning was a habit formation process (Lado, 1961). The identification of isolated, atomistic features of language (phonemes, morphemes, lexemes) lent itself to the creation of objective, discrete-point tests. The advantage of discrete-point measures rest in their capacity to provide diagnostic information and to their ease and reliability in administration and in scoring. Their usefulness in a classroom setting is also noteworthy, where mastery of specified curricular content is an instructional goal (Groot, 1975; Morrow, 1979).

Discrete-point language measures specify in detail a student's mastery of a particular aspect of linguistics (Levine, 1976). Their traditional focus on grammatical or linguistic competence has been criticized for spontaneous response, and for their linguistically constrained format (Oller, 1976; Morrow, 1979). Nevertheless, in ESL and bilingual education instructional settings, structuralistic language testing techniques remain the most widely used (Day, 1981).

The integrative-sociolinguistic trend, dating from the 1960's, is characterized by the view of psycholinguists that language testing should be approached wholistically in conjunction with the sociolinguists belief in a strong functional dimension. The integrative approach centers on the total communication effect of an utterance (Carroll, 1961), rather than an isolated speech act. It encompasses the adaptation of linguistic or grammatical competence to the informational input of the situation (Savignon, 1972).

The purpose of integrative language tests is to evaluate the use of natural language in social/cultural interaction. These measures are generally categorized as one of three subtypes: 1. direct; face-to-face interactive exchange between two or more persons; 2.

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semi-direct; use of a mechanical elicitation device to prompt active speech (e.g. tape recorder); 3. indirect; absence of active speech production on the part of the student (Clark, 1979). The direct and semi-direct approaches offer the greatest face validity, as they most accurately simulate real life communication. The pragmatic or indirect approach is considered the most reliable, producing high intercorrelations among its varied techniques such as cloze, dictation, and noise (Oller and Conrad, 1971; Oller, 1972; Johanson, 1972).

A new method of language measurement has evolved in the last decade which combines the most advantageous features of discrete-point and of integrative testing. This quasi-integrative (McCollum and Day, 1981) or mixed (Gottlieb, 1983) procedure couples the use of spontaneous language sampling, through direct or semi-direct means, with an objective scoring system. Provision for a wide range of acceptable responses allows for the creative manipulation of language, maintaining the integrity of current linguistic theory. The discrete-point based scoring system, being structured and uniform, lends to ease of interpretation and test reliability.

Another relatively new evaluation procedure for LEP students integrates discrete-point and integrative testing to form a dual purpose, two-tiered instrument. The first layer is designed to establish the comparability between groups with varying communicative needs while the second layer assesses specific content area skills. The multiple methods required for this integrated approach have been suggested for communicative competence testing in conjunction with academic achievement testing (Groot, 1975; Walters, 1979; Carroll, 1980; Keller, 1982).

The current state of the art in second language testing is summarized in the following diagram. In it, the assessment procedures described in this section are presented along a continuum, from the most linguistically restrictive to the least linguistically restrictive design. From a chronological perspective, discrete-point tests, on the extreme left, were the first to be developed followed by integrative measures on the extreme right. Mixed and two-tiered instruments, occupying the middle sectors, represent the most recently devised second language assessment tools.

Student Centered Evaluation

So far, this paper has attended to linguistic theory and its application to second language assessment. The focus now shifts to the input phase of evaluation. Differential inputs might include the effects of instruction and the classroom environment, the teacher, and the student (Tucker, 1979). This section identifies these input variables within the context of evaluation.

One of the goals of ESL and transitional bilingual education programs is to produce students who have subconsciously acquired second language (L2) communicative skills, and who have consciously learned curriculum content (Krashen, 1982). Teaching methodologies that provide comprehensible input and maintain a low level of student anxiety such as total physical response (Asher, 1982) and the natural approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) have been commended for facilitating the language acquisition process.

Other factors that may affect LEP student performance associated

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with teaching are more psycholinguistic in nature. The student's motivation, attitudes, self-concept, cognitive learning style, personality are some traits that should be considered by teachers in both instruction and in evaluation. As a practical tool, ancillary to teaching, testing needs to mirror the identical goals and objectives.

Teachers, themselves, are important sources of input in the evaluation process (Harris, 1969; Rivera and Simich, 1981). Teacher judgment should not be underestimated (Freytes and Rivera, 1979), for the observational measurement techniques which teachers employ are critical adjuncts to the more conventional and formal methods of assessment. According to Vernon (1960), ranking lists produced by teachers, who know their students well, probably constitute the most valid criterion available. Pedulla et al. (1980) suggest that teacher ratings and standardized test results of students are directly related.

Student characteristics also influence student performance (Farhady, 1982); therefore, it is advisable to include learned variables in evaluation. For LEP students, many of these factors are sociolinguistically grounded; e.g. role models, access to L2 outside the school domain, language of interaction in informal and formal settings, and use of code switching. Others can be categorized as educational or experiential such as years of schooling in the United States and outside the continental U.S., years of residence in the U.S., and level of literacy in L1 and L2. The final cluster of variables that warrant consideration in the assessment of LEP students might include sex, age/grade, birthplace, and socio/cultural/economic background.

In the evaluation of LEP students, there are multiple sources of input data, of testing methods, and of measured outcomes. The reliance on a limited number of variables results in insufficient and incomplete information on which to base educational decisions. "Wholistic" evaluation contextualizes assessment, broadening its scope and enhancing criteria selection. Figure 2, below, presents the three phases of the evaluation cycle for LEP students.

Development of an Assessment Model

The evaluation cycle identifies inputs (factors outside of test materials), processes (testing methods), and outputs (student outcomes). It is useful to the classroom teacher in planning, implementing, and modifying curriculum objectives to meet the needs of the students. At the point of exit from an ESL/bilingual program, the outputs of LEP students ought to be comparable to those of their native English- speaking peers. Predictive validation studies, however, on successful transition of language minority students into L2 only classrooms are practically non-existent (Curtis, Ligon, and Weibly, 1980).

The formulation of a framework is a first step in the development of theoretically and empirically viable entry and exit procedures (Cummins, 1984). The model, presented below, attempts to capture the critical areas in the assessment of LEP students. Supplemented with standardized testing instruments, it portrays a "wholistic" picture of the students' competencies. Although this paper has centered on L2 outcomes, this model is both relevant and applicable to L1 evaluation.

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The proposed assessment model considers four areas in the evaluation of LEP students: 1. the experiential background of the student; 2. the level of acquisition; 3. the degree of conceptual learning; and 4. the teacher's estimation of the student's competencies. Experiential background is further defined by the sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and educational factors that affect the language acquisition/learning process. Language acquisition encompasses the development of both receptive and expressive communicative proficiency appropriate for meaningful participation in the school milieu. Conceptual learning designates subject matter knowledge and its relation to literacy. The fourth component, teacher evaluation, provides on-going feedback to students both in informal and formal contexts.

The arrows give some directionality to the components and the subcomponents of the model; they do not imply any causal relationships. It is a logical presumption to expect that prior experiences of LEP students will influence their ability to acquire language and to learn concepts. Teacher evaluation is a natural outgrowth of instruction and should be used to monitor the rate of acquisition/learning and to modify teaching objectives.

Conclusion

Testing is a measurement of a sample behavior; evaluation is the assignment of a meaningful value. Whereas testing is limited to the parameters of the instrument, evaluation is a broader assessment of a situation. "Wholistic" evaluation amplifies the concept to include both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Linguistic theory provides us with definitions of language and hypothesized models to empirically test them. Moreover, linguistic theory is a backdrop for the development of teaching methodologies and language assessment tools. The intent of testing instruments for second language learners has traditionally been to measure language and not until recently has it broadened to include a measure of academic achievement.

Student centered evaluation acknowledges that differentiated inputs may attribute to differentiated outputs. Select sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and educational variables unique to LEP students, contribute to language acquisition and learning. Their recognition and integration into an evaluation plan facilitates appropriate and meaningful educational opportunities for LEP students.

Finally, teachers are both a valuable source of data and a resource to be utilized in student evaluation. Teacher expertise or connoisseurship (Eisner, 1978) is the backbone of instruction and needs to be built into the assessment model. If ESL and bilingual education teachers are considered key components in student evaluation, and reliable and valid information is obtainable through informal and formal means, then educational decisions that affect LEP students will be more sound, realistic, and useful.

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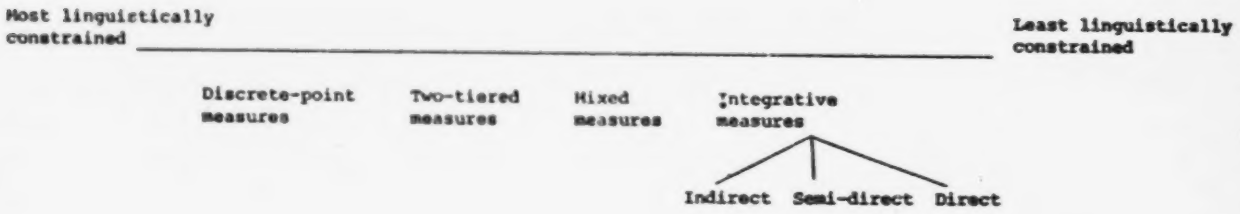

Figure 1. Continuum of second language assessment measures.

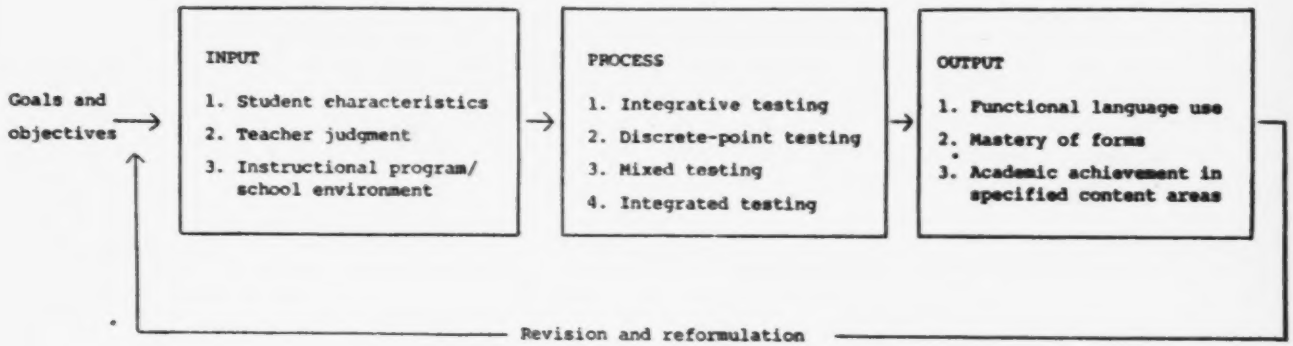

Figure 2. The evaluation cycle for limited English proficient students.

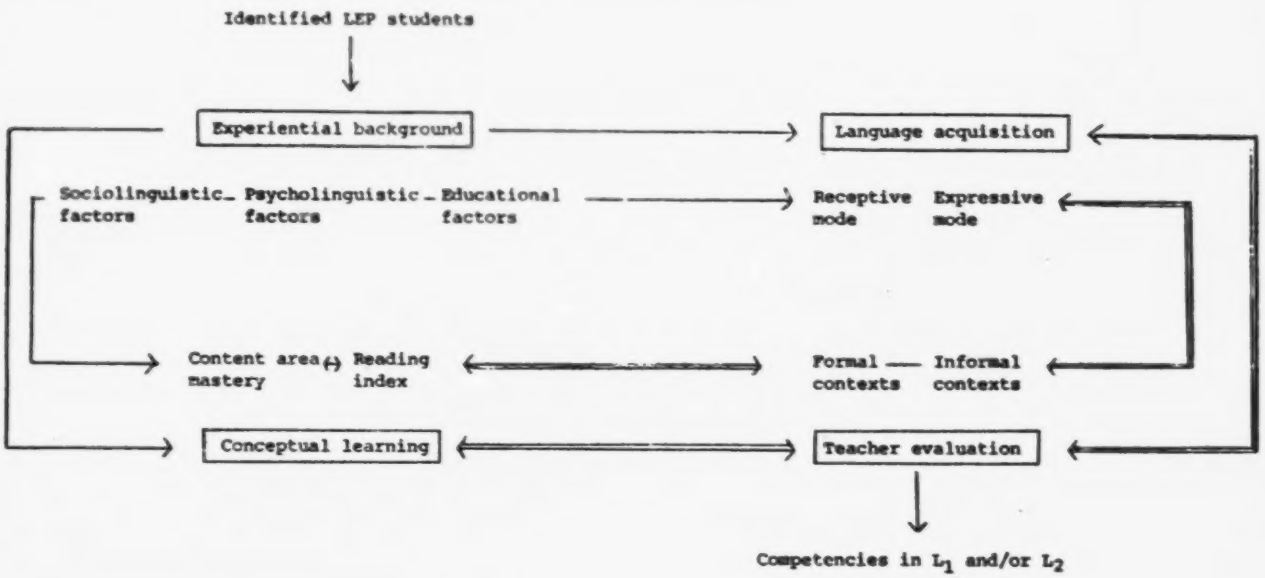

Figure 3. An assessment model for LEP students.

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Can Southeast Asian Students Learn to Discriminate between English Phonemes more Quickly with the Aid of Music and Rhythm?

Lisa Karimer

The use of music and song were an integral part of language teaching as far back as the Middle Ages. Students were introduced to a second language in what was known as the "Song School." After the rhythm and flow of the language had been drilled by chant, which was based solidly on speech rhythms, the pupil began the formal study of the second language--usually Latin.

From that time, the use of rhythms as an aid to teaching a second language has been recognized, although of course, it has always been accepted that rhythm and music are important tools in teaching young children their own language. Both Alexander Bell and Peter Guberina, professor of phonetics at Zagut and Paris, explored the idea of teaching speech in rhythmic units. No sound was ever presented or drilled outside a phonological or grammatical structure, and if possible, it was taught in a context involving some emotional or physical reaction.

Guberina used a machine called "Suvag lingua," in which he had his pupils listen to typical rhythms of the second language given out in low frequencies; these he regarded as being more stimulating, because they were in tune with the basic frequencies to which the body as a resonator would react. Every sound that he taught had a definite emotional color or typical context in which it was best taught.

In the 20th century a number of techniques using, often-times, the germinal ideas that Bell and Guberina employed were developed and expanded into systems for teaching second languages. These opened the door to completely new concepts in second language teaching.

One of these was to induce in the students a semi-hypnotic state which would enable them to better concentrate on the material to be learned. There was sleep learning - a method involving the use of taped materials, repeated over and over, while all the students slept.

Suggestopedia is a system developed in Bulgaria by Dr. Georgi Lozanov which promises faster memorization and stronger retention through concentrated visualization. (Ostrander, 1980).

There are myriad systems which use various aspects of yoga and other mediation systems which are supposed to induce faster learning and greater retention by being geared to breathing or body pulsations.

The fact that a person with a bad stutter can speak unhesitatingly in rhythm has been a starting point for some radical innovations in language learning.

All in all, practical advantages of these systems have been somewhat controversial. They make interesting subjects for magazine articles, but their true value has not been definitely proved. It is my intention to use one of these techniques and test its practical value in my own classroom to see what results I obtain in my particular world of language learning.

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Many L2 learners are taught pronunciation of L2 lexical items in isolated environments; an example of this would be a minimal pair set. According to some researchers, this practice is ineffective in terms of teaching the L2 learner to memorize expedientl, and in terms of teaching him to discriminate between the various sound patterns of English. Can one hasten the goal of acquiring native-like fluency through the use of nursery rhymes, chants and songs? I could more specifically state the question in the following way: "Can Southeast Asian beginning-level students learn to discriminate between the various sound patterns of English more expediently through the use of minimal pairs or through the use of rhymes, chants and songs?"

A "minimnal pair", is defined in 25 Centuries of Language Teaching , as "two words that differ in one phoneme only." (Kelly, 1976). During the 1950's and 1960's it was considered the most commonly used drill. In Pronunciation Contrasts in English (Nilsen, 1973), minimal pair units are prescribed to aid students experiencing "native language interference," in which the deeply established first language habits of the student tend to predominate until the new English speech patterns have been firmly mastered.

Earl W. Stevick (Stevick, 1982), an authority on language teaching, claims that fluency depends at least as much on emotional factors as on amount of practice, and that what a learner practices is the mobilization of competence, not just the repetition of performance.

Research on human memory has brought to light the fact that what we think of as separate items are not stored separately. Further research revealed that sensory data that come together are stored together. The smell of chalk, for example, immediately conjures up images of small, wooden desks and chairs with gum hidden under the seats. In other words, just as no man is an island, it is my assumption that in the students' acquisition of a second language, not just one sense is or should be affected. My contention is that by using music and/or rhythm as a leitmotif the student will be able to establish an image from which to pull, which will enable him to utilize his short-term memory.

Population

My population consisted of 25 Southeast Asian adults over the age of 18. They were enrolled in an 8 week term. This group was subdivided into 3 basic, ethnic groups: Cambodian, Lao Hmong and Vietnamese. Collectively the 4 groups share educational handicaps insofar as their being victims of culture shock, and because of the fact that their languages bear little phonetic similarity to English. Though the Vietnamese generally came from big cities, the Lao Hmong and the Cambodians typically came from rural or mountainous areas and were traditionally farmers. The Hmong, tribal people from the mountains of Laos, specifically, were not literate in their native tongue. I took a particular interest in doing this experiment with the Lao Hmong because of the fact that one of their traditions is that when a man looks for a wife, he specifically looks for two qualities: the ability to sew and the ability to sing. The courtship ritual in their tradition involves having the man sing an original love song to the object of his

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affection as they throw a ball back and forth to her. She must respond by imitating his intonation patterns exactly, and then by initiating her own. My experience in teaching the Hmong has been that they seem to have a "good ear" for language and I must admit a bias in this direction.

I chose 5 moderator variables which were as follows: age, sex, nationality, and the number of languages spoken by the individual. My final results will help me to evaluate whether these variables were chosen appropriately.

It has been my experience that the Vietnamese have the most trouble, as compared with the other groups, when it comes to discriminating between particular English phonemes as a result of interference from their first language. Vietnamese is a mono-syllabic language in which there are no final consonants and no consonant clusters. There is no phoneme /p/ and the closest sounding phoneme in English is that of /f/.

On the other hand, the Vietnamese have the advantage of having used the Roman alphabet and having a vowel system which is closely related to that of English. (In the Seventeenth century missionaries invented a Roman transcription for the language which is used for all purposes today.)

Procedures

The students were given a pre-test, listening examination in which they were asked to determine whether a particular phoneme in the first word was present or not present in the second word. For example, the first set consisted of the words: cook and color. I read the two words slowly and repeated them three times. Then I asked the students to write S for same if the two words shared the same initial sound or D for different if the two words did not. I continued this procedure until the students heard 20 words. They were asked to judge 10 phonemes positioned initially, and 10 phonemes placed finally.

I chose to use a pre-test, post-test design, and to use the scores on this listening exam and another test which would be given in two weeks as my post-test.

The phonemes to which I paid particular attention were as follows: sh/s/z/l/r/c/ch/p/f. After looking at the papers I discovered that out of the 25 students, 7 did not follow the directions properly. Therefore I decided not to use them in my findings. Half of the available population was assigned to a control group and half to an experimental group.

Both groups were given a treatment consisting of 20 minutes of instruction, twice a week, over a 2 week period. The control group was given minimal pairs which highlighted the previously mentioned phonemes. The experimental group was given various songs and rhythmic chants which presented the same sounds contextually.

The students in the control group were asked to listen to a word list of 10 minimal pairs. Then the minimal pair sets were written on the board. The teacher read one of the words in each set and then asked individual students to decide if the word that she uttered matched the first word or the second word. The following will serve as

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an example:

1	2
said	shed
pill	fill
rock	lock
buzz	bus

The students in the experimental group were asked to learn the following songs and chants. The words of these songs and chants follow:

1. Sunshine on my shoulders makes me happy;
   Sunshine in my eyes can make me cry;
   Sunshine on the water looks so lovely;
   Sunshine almost always makes me cry.

2. I love the mountains,
   I love the daffodils,
   I love the flowers,
   I love the rolling hills,
   I love the fireside,
   when all the lights are low.

3. How much wood could a woodchuck chuck,
   if a woodchuck could chuck wood?

4. Sally sells seashells by the seashore.

5. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.

6. Someone's singing, Lord, Kum bay yah.
   Someone's singing, Lord, Kum bay yah.
   Someone's singing, Lord, Kum bay yah.
   Oh, Lord, Kum bay yah.

The students were instructed to listen carefully to the songs as the teacher sang each one three times. Individual students were asked to identify specific sounds by clapping as they heard. In other words, a student would be asked to listen carefully for the /s/ phoneme in the first song. Then he would proceed to clap his hands each time he recognized it. The songs and chants were specifically chosen because the consonants which they contrasted posed particularly difficult problems for the student.

The students were given a post-test similar to that of the pre-test after the two week period ended. Again, the students, collectively, were asked to distinguish between the varying consonantal sounds in 20 words.

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Data Analysis/Conclusion

The test results shown on the chart reveal that the mean score of Group I was 67.7 on the pre-test. The mean score of Group II was 63.3 (Group I refers to the control group and Group II refers to the experimental group).

The mean score for the post-test of Group I was 71.6 and the mean score for the post-test of Group II was 73.3.

Although the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores was only 1.7, the difference is noteworthy when an examination of the scores reveals that Group I had higher scores in general than Group II - yet Group II had higher scores in the post-test. There seems to be, therefore, an advantage in the use of the experimental treatment. One must consider, too, that the higher scores for Group I in the pre-test resulted from the fact that there were five Vietnamese students, whereas there were only two in Group II. Only the students from Vietnam have lived in an urban society and have experienced a broad vocabulary. The others, from Cambodia and Laos, lived as peasants in rural territory where vocabulary was limited and writing was even unknown in some cases. In consideration of this, the higher score of Group II, however small, is more significant.

The distribution of the scores are of interest. Whereas the scores of the post-test of Group I are distributed thinly across the full range of scores, the post-test scores of Group II are bunched in a central position. This could indicate that Group II was advancing in their learning as a group. In Group I the better students and poorer students retained their same ranking. This could indicate that the experimental treatment held some universal advantage which was available to both the more and less skillful students.

It seems natural enough that the experimental group, whose learning was aided by the treatment, would have an advantage. To reiterate, the experimental treatment affects many of the sensory inputs which definitely encourage memory retention. But then other factors enter: It may be true that I taught with greater enthusiasm and vigor during the experimental group treatment, simply because it was an experiment and new to my teaching method.

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STUDENT	AGE	PRE-TEST	POST TEST	SEX	COUNTRY
Group I					
1	18	85	90	M	Vietnam
2	21	55	55	M	Cambodia
3	35	80	80	M	Vietnam
4	45	80	85	M	Cambodia
5	30	70	80	F	Laos
6	29	60	65	F	Vietnam
7	23	55	55	F	Vietnam
8	46	85	90	F	Cambodia
9	37	40	45	F	Vietnam
Group II					
1	52	70	80	F	Laos
2	25	80	80	M	Cambodia
3	19	70	85	M	Cambodia
4	29	65	65	M	Vietnam
5	20	75	85	M	Vietnam
6	21	70	75	M	Laos
7	18	75	85	F	Cambodia
8	30	45	60	M	Cambodia
9	19	20	45	F	Cambodia

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Group I	$\bar{x} = 67.7$	$\bar{x} = 71.6$
Group II	$\bar{x} = 63.3$	$\bar{x} = 73.3$

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Critical Issues in the Use and Teaching of the Native Language to Asian Limited English Proficient Students

Wook Park, National College of Education
Ovid Wong, National College of Education
Noriko Takada, Evanston School District #65
Stephen Shiu, Chicago Board of Education
David Wong, Chicago Board of Education
Patricia Kim, Chicago Board of Education

Introduction

The use of the language minority children's native language as an effective means of instruction has been recognized in immersion programs (Met, 1984). The native language component is an integral part in bilingual education programs (Illinois State Board of Education, 1976). This paper examines the value of the native language and the assumption of the transferability of skills between languages, and explores effective instructional strategies in teaching the Asian language minority children of limited English proficiency.

The content of this paper draws from three data sources: (1) a survey of the teachers of Asian language minority children; (2) observations presented by the teaching personnel representing well-known programs in Illinois such as those of Evanston School District #65, Schaumburg School District #54, Elgin U-46 , Urbans #116, and of the Chicago Public Schools; and (3) a dialogue between practitioners and theorists. The programs selected have bilingual, English as a second language, or immersion or all of those components serving one or more of the major Asian languages: Cambodian, Chinese, Indese, Lao/Hmong, Japanese, Korean and Vietnamese. The data were gathered and recorded in conjunction with a symposium entitled, Excellence in Education: Implications for the Asian Limited English Proficient Children , which took place at the National College of Education's Evanston campus on November 18, 1983.

The following are the three main questions:

(1) Should the students' native language be used as a means of instruction? (This is a bottom line question for a bilingual education program.)

(2) Is there transfer of skills from the native language (hereinafter L1) to the second language (hereinafter L2 or English)?

(3) How can the language and culture of the language minority children effectively assist the learning of English language skills?

The purpose of the present paper is an overview, organization of thoughts, elaboration of the symposium results, and in addition, a further interpretation of those three issues.

53 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Should the Students' Native Language Be Used as a Means of Instruction?

In recent years many Asian students have been identified as Limited-English proficient. A limited-English proficient (LEP) student who does not speak and understand the English language in an instructional setting well enough to benefit from schools to the same extent as a student whose primary language is English (Bilingual Vocational Education Project, 1979). For LEP students, the process of knowledge acquisition is at stake because their English communication skills are not well enough developed to learn in an English-only program. Clearly, however, the student may know more than he can express in English. This dilemma is often expressed by a statement like: "I know it, but I have difficulties in saying it or writing it in English". Noam Chomsky and others (Chomsky, 1957) have pointed out that language competence (the ability to understand language) of a person is often greater than language performance (the ability to use language). For the LEP student, learning a new language (e.g. English), this difference is even greater. It follows that using only English as a means of instruction might be unlikely to help the student in attaining and/or expressing concepts. Are there other ways of instruction that might better suit the needs of LEP students? Let us hypothesize that the use of the native language as a means in instruction can provide a way for the LEP student to acquire knowledge of a subject, even though he has not yet developed his English to be able to understand and express ideas. The main purpose of this part of the discussion is an attempt to substantiate the hypothesis from three different studies. These studies are a classroom analysis, a symposium questionnaire survey, and a research finding.

A study was done to compare the learning of two LEP high school science classes at the tenth grade level. One class is a Cantonese-speaking group, and the other class is a group that speaks several languages (Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, and Russian). The two classes were taught by a bilingual (Cantonese-English) science teacher. To the Cantonese group a regular high school biology text book (Biological Science Curriculum Study) was used and the lessons were delivered in Cantonese supplemented by the use of English. After the lapse of three months, through substantial evaluation, it was found that the students attained both the content and the process of science. Similar text materials were employed to teach the other multilanguage class. However, because of the language diversity English was used as the only means of instruction. At the end of the three months it was found that little content was acquired. However, process acquisition was about the same as the Cantonese class. To remedy the learning situation in the Cambodian-Hmong-Laotian-Russian class and with the permission of the school administration, the textbook was dropped and replaced by another text entitled Science Curriculum Improvement Study (an elementary school program). At the end of the school year, learning of the two classes was compared and analyzed. The Cantonese class that used the native language as a means of instruction appeared to learn more in terms of content than the other class that used only English as a means of instruction.

An Asian symposium was held at the National College of Education

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in Evanston in November, 1983. Educators from around the area were invited to discuss and share their ideas on several critical issues in the use and teaching of native language to Asian LEP students. During the symposium, a survey of opinions was conducted in the form of a questionnaire. In particular three questions were selected to illustrate educators' opinions on the use of the native language. The three selected questions and their responses are shown in the table included here. From the questionnaire response it is clear that the majority of the educators, including administrators, teachers, and teacher aides, agree that the use of native language is a useful method of teaching Asian LEP students.

How would education researchers respond to the use of native language? A second language teaching research project was done at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign recently (Troike, 1983). The academic performance of Asian LEP students was studied and analyzed. One relevant finding was that most of the students who achieved best in content areas, as measured by tests in English, were those who had the opportunity to discuss the concepts they were learning in their native language with other children and parents. Even in linguistically heterogeneous classrooms, it was concluded that at least some degree of bilingual education was proving to be feasible, and clearly provides the best context for conceptual development.

In closing our discussion, it is apparent from the three studies that the importance of teaching in the native language is recognized and its value in conceptual developmenmt is high. Therefore, our hypothesis of teaching in the native language is valid.

Is There Transfer of Skills from the Native Language (L1) to the Second Language (L2)?

It can be generally assumed that a French speaker can learn English faster than a Chinese speaker does; a Korean speaker can learn Chinese faster than an English speaker does.

Does a French speaker learn English faster than a Chinese because of the frequency of crosscultural interactions?

The language transfer theory has been explicated by Cummins (1979) by distinguishing language proficiency in two levels: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) which include pronunciation, basic vocabulary and grammar which are used in interpersonal and communicative contexts, and Cognitive and Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), which includes theoretical concepts and academic terminology used in academic situations. He describes the distinction between BICS and CALP by using an analogy of an iceberg: in our mind we have a much larger reservoir of knowledge, information, and concepts than we can use in our daily interaction. In other words, the external or surface level language skills are merely the tip of an iceberg. He uses the analogy of a double iceberg in explaining the transfer of language and cognitive skills associated with one language into another: It is easier to transfer CALP than BICS of L1 and L2. The easier transfer at the CALP level is possible because of the existence of the common underlying proficiency of L1 and L2, as opposed to a separate

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underlying proficiency. The implication then is that for many minority children, L2 CALP can be developed much more adequately by means of L2 instruction.

The question is: Is the Language transfer hypothesis verifiable between an Asian L1 and the English language?

A noted linguist and a theorist of second language acquisition, Kenji Hakuda (1983), commented: A review of studies on the subject would fill no more than five pages; the conclusion is that there is not enough research on Asian-Americans. However, he did recognize the phenomenon of transfer, more often because of contrastive differences rather than similarities, between an Asian L1 and English. For example, R/L distinction, or lack of it, is one contrastive feature. He noted that the Japanese learners were as good as the English learners in perceiving the difference, and encouraged the use of a contrastive table of various languages.

Recognizing the lack of research on the relationship or transferability between an Asian L1 and English, we take pride in opening a dialogue with classroom teachers on this issue through surveys and open forums. Teachers, teacher aides, and program coordinators provide the second source of evidence, the experiential. One agreement that came out of the November symposium was that a good reader in a native language tends to be a good reader of the English language. This statement seems to verify a research survey of some 50 teachers and teacher-aides in the Chicago metropolitan area (Park, 1980). There were, however, varied observations as to the teaching of the native language among different Asian language groups.

This tentative conclusion that, yes, there is transfer, at least at the CALP level, between an Asian L1 and English, leads us to the next question: Should we, or should we not, teach the native language before introducing English language arts and reading to non-readers and to native language readers?

A recent major study compiled by the Department of Education (Garcia, 1984) indicates that teachers of 70% of the sampled bilingual education programs use both L1 and L2 as a means of instruction; in 75% of the Spanish-only projects, L1 (Spanish) is exclusively used to first teach reading; the teaching of the native language arts (Spanish) and reading (Spanish) is an important component of the bilingual programs surveyed. Again, unfortunately any discussion with regard to an Asian language and instruction of it seems to be left out in the study.

One would guess on the basis of the growing popularity of the "Saturday language schools" in most Asian communities, that parents have an interest in teaching and maintaining their home languages. However, to what extent they want to have the native language instruction in the public schools available for their children is a question yet to be answered. The parents tend to think that spending time on learning the home language might slow down the linguistic, academic and cultural transition. However, the parents are open-minded to well-grounded suggestions.

Linguists generally seem to agree that before children can learn to read, they must have oral proficiency in the language to be used. This assumption suggests that children should be taught either to read in their native language or that before bilingual children are

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introduced to English reading they must have oral command of English. ESL rests on the latter part of the assumption.

A second assumption widely accepted is that when there is a regular grapheme-phoneme correspondence (e.g., Korean), it is easier for the child to learn to read initially in the native language by introducing the relationship between sound and letters using phonics as the basic focus. A local Korean bilingual teacher developed a nice schema to teach English language arts using Korean language skills. A linguist presented language art instruction materials for both English and Korean using the contrastive analysis of differences and sound-letter correspondence (Chu, 1980).

Teaching the native language is a controversial issue because of the lack of research data and time economy. We would like to propose further study for Asian languages on this issue of transferability and the value of teaching the native language. One conclusion is clear: the native language that an LEP student brings with him to school is an important, valuable resource for effective instruction. Unfortunately we seem to know so little about it.

How Can the Native Language Effectively Assist the Learning of English Language Skills?

When Asians are discussed, there is the tendency to consider them as people belonging to one single group. In reality, they represent various countries, and diversified language groups. Among all the differences, there is, however, a thread of commonality and similarity found among the Asians. Seven major features are selected to show this commonality. This commonality does play an important role in facilitating students' progress from L1 to L2 and culture 1 to culture 2.

(1) Vocaulary:

How many Asian words have the same root as English words? Scientific or contemporary common nouns such as "jet," "bus," and "computer" have been adapted to the first language and may retain some resemblance to the original English words, but commonly, words do not have any transferability. Therefore, every word, whether it has a concrete or an abstract meaning, has to be learned through memory work.

(2) Phonology:

Some Asian languages function with fewer sounds than English, while others have more sounds than English. What is even more difficult, is that in some languages there could be four to six different tones differentiating meaning of the same sound. Whatever the case may be, the development of sounds and the need for practice for the Asian LEP students are different for example, from the Spanish speakers. "If" can become "Ip" and "a big dog" might turn into a "pik tok." Some may substitute "see" with "she", and the sound of "sit" may result in a catastrophy.

(3) Grammar:

There are many rules which govern the English language. They are many in number and quite different in nature from L1, and it is

preferable that these rules be explained in the language that the students understand. If a teacher is to list the problems areas, it becomes a litany of difficulties: pronouns, third person singular, the verb agreement, present and past tense, plus coping with irregular verbs, and so on. Some Asian languages depend on "time markers" such as the word, "yesterday" making it unnecessary for the verb to indicate the past. The "number marker", such as the word "three", indicates exactly how many; therefore, the noun remains the same, without the plural indicator.

(4) Writing System

The Latin alphabet is used in the Philippines, Indonesia, and Vietnam. In Vietnamese several tone markers are used to indicate the word meaning. Some other writing systems are phonetic, yet others are pictographic and exceed thousands in numbers to be memorized. Writing direction also needs to be taken into consideration. Some writing systems are left to right, but others are from right to left, or from top to bottom in a vertical manner. It is not that uncommon to find a student carefully decoding a three syllable word, and yet automatically decoding a short connective word from right to left. Many of the writing systems are extremely complex, with a great deal of emphasis placed on "penmanship," "writing ability," and "reading." Students are more often visual-oriented than not, and they feel more comfortable in writing much sooner than other English language learners.

(5) Syntax

"Book opening, 10 page, read, must" is an example of how "Open your book, and read page 10" would look in some other language. English word order is extremely different for some Asian students. Not knowing where to begin a sentence and how to place words in proper order definitely slow down some Asians' oral communication in English. In order to decrease some of the frustration and sense of helplessness, an ample supply of vocabulary sometimes gives them the assurance that they need.

(6) Learning Styles

The educational system in many countries is highly competitive, demanding, and fact-learning is greatly emphasized. On the other hand, there are some places where formal education is minimal and a writing system is non-existent. Many countries place high value on memorization, recitation, and reproduction of great works. Students are given large numbers of assignments and rigid examinations that determine promotion from grade to grade, or level to level.

(7) Cultural Implications

Although Asian LEP students represent various countries and language groups, there are many culture-based commonalities. A tremendous respect is paid to "learning," "a learned person," and "the place of learning."

By almost all groups, "learning" is looked upon as something that requires diligence that sometimes is accompanied by pain or sacrifice, but which can later be rewarded through accomplishments. Many Asian children grow up being told, "Don't say anything unless you have something important to say," or "Gather enough knowledge first and

then discuss." A wise man of few words is held in higher esteem than someone who is just verbal. This view may be based on the Daoistic or Confucius teaching, or it may be because Asian cultures developed among homogeneous groups of people over many thousands of years that they feel quite comfortable having "silent conversation" and are not anxious to verbalize. Having this type of cultural orientation, taking turns at "show and tell," giving "oral sentations" or participating in "discussions" are not the easiest task for the students.

As for non-verbal communication, there are many common behaviors found among the students. They may sometimes seem shy and scared in comparison to their American peers, but in reality, this is a respectful posture in their culture. Students may avoid having eye contact with teachers because that is considered bold and can be interpreted in some culture as a sign of defiance.

Asian bilingual staff strongly feel that there is a very important role they can play during the students' transition period. They can be the interpreters of culture, as well as being teachers of L1 and L2, and facilitators to involve parents in the American school system. The hope is to develop ways to cooperatively work with the ESL staff to assist Asian LEP students.

Summary and Conclusion

Three critical language issues concerning Asian LEP students have been discussed, and the following answers have been identified.

(1) Teaching in the native language as a means of instruction is highly recognized. It is found that the use of native language is of most value in the development of concepts.

(2) According to the language transfer hypothesis, the transfer of congitive and academic proficiency is easier than the transfer of basic communicative skill of the native language (L1) to English (L2). Further research is needed in this particular area.

(3) The native language, vocabulary, phonology, grammar, writing system, syntax, learning styles, and cultural implications are similar in most Asian languages. These seven linguistic areas facilitate students' progress from their native language to the second English.

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Using Oral and Written Language Responses from Two Language Inventories and Data from a Non-Verbal IQ Test to Predict ESL Reading Performance

Kyle Perkins, Charlotte Groff, and Paul Angelis

Abstract

Oral and written responses were elicited from two langauge inventories, and each response was categorized as paradigmatic or syntagmatic. Data were also elicited from a non-verbal IQ test, a cloze test, and a reading comprehension test. There was no significant difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic responses for the subject pool, indicating that the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift observed in L1 children had not taken place. Different psycholinguistic explanations are offered.

In general, L2 subjects who were predominantly paradigmatic scored higher on the IQ measure and the reading comprehension test, a finding similar to L1 studies. The predominantly syntagmatic subjects had higher cloze scores. The non-verbal IQ measure was more consistent in predicting cloze and reading comprehension scores than the responses to the language inventories.

Introduction

There is a considerable corpus of psycholinguistic research with word association tests (WAT). The basic technique associated with WATs is to provide subjects with a stimulus word and to ask them to think of the first word that comes to their minds. Responses to WATs can be categorized as syntagmatic or paradigmatic. A syntamatic response to a stimulus word is a word that would follow the stimulus word in normal speech like "run-quickly" or "yellow-car." A paradigmatic response is a word that belongs to the same form class as the stimulus word like "black-white," "pretty-ugly," or "contractor-builder." Paradigmatic responses can illustrate a superordinate relationship "apple-fruit," a coordinate relationship "arm-leg," a contrastive relationship "black-white," or a part-whole relationship "branch-tree."

WATs, beginning with one of the earliest, Thumb and Marbe (1901), have shown that adults give primarily paradigmatic reponses while children give primarily syntagmatic reponses. Adult word-association patterns are very homogeneous and predictable, but children's associations are less homogeneous (Clark, 1970; Clifton 1967; Deese 1962, 1965; Entwisle, Forsyth and Muus, 1964).

There has been some L1 (but no L2) research on the relationship between verbal word association resonses and both scores on IQ measures and scores on reading tests. Bickley, Dinnan, and Bickley (1970)

reported that 19-20 year-old subjects who gave primarily paradigmatic responses on a verbal language inventory scored higher on the Otis Quick Score Mental Maturity Test than subjects who gave primarily syntagmatic responses. Bickley, Bickley, and Cowart (1970) reported that fourth-grade subjects who were predominantly low syntagmatic respondents scored higher on the California Reading Test than subjects who were predominantly high syntagmatic respondents.

Since there has been no L2 research reported on these relationships, the purpose of this investigation is to determine whether there is a relationship between oral and written responses, either paradigmatic or syntagmatic, to a language inventory task and scores achieved on an intelligence test, a cloze test, and a reading comprehension test. Oral and written elicitation methods were employed to dertermine if there would be a method effect.

Procedures

Subjects . This research was conducted at the Center for English as a Second Language at Southern Illinios University at Carbondale. Thirty-three adult students enrolled in full-time intensive English classes at the Center served as unpaid volunteers for the study. Nineteen subjects were enrolled in intermediate-level reading classes; the remaining fourteen, in advanced-level reading classes.

Materials . Each subject was tested individually with the Oral Language Inventory (Appendix A) and the Written Language Inventory (Appendix B). Each response from both inventories was classified as either syntagmatic or paradigmatic and so recorded.

The Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices was used as a measure of intelligence. The Raven's is a non-verbal IQ test which requires the subject to look at a pattern with a portion missing and to select from among eight options the one which best completes the larger pattern. The Raven's contains five sections with twelve items per section.

The cloze test contained 100 blanks with each deletion occurring every seven words.

The reading comprehension test contained 40 questions which were based on seven passages taken from textbooks, stories, humorous writings, scientific reports, and other types of reading material. The items assessed word meaning in isolation and in context, inference, key points of the passage and evaluation.

Analysis . Table 1 presents statistics for all measures and for all subjects. Table 2 contains the results of various parametrics t-tests which analyze the differences between the means for the syntagmatic and paraigmatic responses elicited orally and written.

The data from each language inventory and the Raven's were ranked from high to low and split at three different criterion points, forming high and low groups for each of the criteria. The three criteria were (1) at the median (Tables 3-7), (2) at the mean (Tables 8-12), and (3) at $\pm$ SD (Tables 13-17). The high and low group means were submitted to parametric and non-parametric t-tests to determine whether there was a significant difference between the means. Since small samples were

encountered in the analyses of data from each of the two different proficiency strata, the Mann-whitney U-test, a non-parametric alternative to the t-test for two independent samples, was used. For some of the variables, the sample sizes were too small to employ the U-test, and, hence the gaps in some of the tables. (The U-test requires n sizes of at least 3).

There were substantial numbers of tie scores for some of the variables so the researchers calculated the normal approximation with tie correcton discussed in Roscoe (1975). It was not possible to calculate the z statistic for some variables due to small sample sizes. (The normal approximation with tie correction requires a common sample size of at least 5.)

Results and Discussion

An inspection of the means of the written and oral reponses in Table 1 indicates that the L2 subjects as a group gave similar numbers of syntagmatic and paradigmatic responses from both elicitation methods. The t-values in Table 2 show no significant differences between paradigmatic and syntagmatic responses. There seems to be no indication of method effect (the oral inventory entailed listening and speaking and the written inventory, reading and writing), on paradigmatic or syntagmatic preference.

The results of this L2 study run counter to previous L1 WAT studies which indicate that adults are predominantly syntagmatic. Crammer (1968) has discussed the so-called syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift that occurs in L1 children between the ages of 5 and 7. According to Crammer, syntagmatic responses decrease while paradigmatic responses increase fron about the age of 5 and 18. The shift in L1 children from primarily syntagmatic to primarily paradigmatic responses usually occurs between ages 5 to 7.

What explanations can one offer to account for the fact that adult L2 subjects are not yet predominantly paradigmatic? Perhaps previous research can provide some insights. Galton (1879-1880) was one of the first researchers to suggest that a theory of contiguity could explain how paradigmatic reponses develop. Galton believed that frequently evoked responses had previously been placed into contiguity with their stimuli. In terms of grammar and vocabulary instruction, drill, and exercise material, these adult L2 subjects may rarely have seen commonly evoked paradigmatic responses placed into contiguity with the stumuli which the paradigmatic responses can replace in normal speech.

Ervin (1963) has claimed that words in the same form class can be placed into contiguity when a subject anticipates what s/he will hear (or read) next. When the subject's anticipations are wrong, contiguity results. By analogy then, one can speculate that in these L2 subjects' exposure to English, the number of times any particular paradigmatic response has been erroneously anticipated for its stimulus has not been high enough to establish a paradigmatic preference.

The syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift may be related to the process

of "de-centering," a process related to stages of cognitive development discussed by Piaget (1967). According to Piaget, children reach the concrete operational stage of cognitive development about age 7. Preoperational children tend to focus their attention on one facet of something and they cannot attend to more that one facet at a time: they cannot de-center. Also, preoperational children do not comprehend the relation between part and whole, i.e., class inclusion, and do not have the ability to think backward and forward at the same time, i.e., seriation. It may be the case that adult L2 subjects who are not yet balanced bilinguals may not be de-centered in the target language.

Perhaps the most convincing explanation for the lack of adult L2 paradigmatic responses can be found in research by Katz and Fodor (1963) and McNeill (1966). Katz and Fodor suggested that the meaning of a word can be analyzed into semantic markers or components. A common paradigmatic response forms a kind of minimal pair or minimal contrast with its stimulus which results in a shift of one marker, e.g., "man-woman." "Man" and "woman" share the semantic markers (adult), (human), and (living) but differ in (sex). McNeill stated that L1 children have incomplete lists of semantic markers. By analogy, adult L2 subjects with their incomplete, interim grammars and smaller (than L1 children's) lexicon also lack complete lists of semantic markers. If adult L2 subjects do not command a large number of a word's markers and features, the set of responses that minimally contrast with the stimulus may be so large that it contains words belonging to different form classes.

The generalization seems to be that word associations result from mental operations that depend on language competence and world experience and knowledge. L2 subjects may not know a long list of synonyms or antonyms for a stimulus word, but they can recognize its part of speech and then produce a syntagmatic response that forms a collocation.

The significant differences between the high and low group means displayed in Tables 3-17 are the following:

High Oral Syntagmatic Group:
- significantly lower reading scores by the median criterion for the intermediate stratum;
- significantly lower Raven's scores by all criteria for all subjects and advanced stratum;
- significantly higher cloze scores by median and ± 1SD criterion for all subjects and advanced stratum;

High Written Syntagmatic Group:
- significantly higher Raven's and reading comprehension scores by the mean criterion for the intermediate stratum;

High Oral Paradigmatic Group:
- significantly higher reading comprehension scores by the median criterion for the intermediate stratum;
- significantly higher Raven's scores by the ± 1SD criterion for all subjects;

High Written Paradigmatic Group:
- significantly higher reading comprehension scores by the ± 1SD criterion for all subjects;

High Raven's Group:

significantly higher cloze scores by all criteria for all subjects and both strata;

significantly higher reading comprehension scores by all criteria for all subjects and both strata;

significantly lower written syntagmatic scores by the mean criterion for the advanced stratum.

To review, Bickley, Dinnan, and Bickley (1970) found that adult L1 subjects who were predominantly paradigmatic scored higher on an IQ measure. Bickley, Bickley, and Cowart (1970) reported that L1 4th graders who were predominantly paradigmatic scored higher on a reading comprehension test.

The L2 results from the study parallel the previously cited L1 studies but for the High Written Syntagmatic Group which had higher Raven's and higher reading comprehension scores for the intermediate stratum and the High Oral Synatgmatic Group which had higher cloze scores. The Raven's was the most consistent predictor for both the cloze and reading comprehension data for all strata and by all criteria.

The unexpected results with the written syntagmatic responses could be due to an elicitation method effect (reading and writing versus listening and speaking) and the possibility that the intermediate group at the high end of the scoring continuum had not proceeded as far as the advanced subjects on the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift.

That the high oral syntagmatic group had higher scores on the cloze test may be explained by the nture of the cloze procedure itself. The rationale for using the cloze procedure to assess reading comprehension is that if a subject comprehends the content and organization of a reading passage, s/he is better able to utilize the redundancy in the reading passage to retrieve the deleted words. Redundancy in a passage is more associated with syntagmatic structures than paradigmatic minimal pairs.

That the Raven's was the most consistent predictor of cloze and reading comprehension scores can be explained by the neurological bases that determine how a plausible text structure is generated. Fisher and Smith (1977) stated that a reader "generates a fabric which relates sentences to each other and to the larger fabric of which they are a part." Fisher and Smith further claimed that there are four aspects related to the generation of a plausible text structure: prior knowledge, logical skills, systematic integration and active processing--information and skills related to neurological activity in the frontal lobes. Luria (1966) and Pribram (1971) noted that the frontal lobes organize behavior directly during serial tasks. The frontal lobes have supervisory or executive tasks that seem to involve five processes, according to Macworth (1977): (1) external visual scanning using hypotheses to establish external context--a grouping of elements; (2) transforming this external context into an internal context--a temporal neurological organization of brain events occurring in short-term memory; (3) requests from short-term memory to long-term memory for subroutines; (4) further comparisons between internal

short-term memory contexts and growing external semantic and syntactic trends; (5) decisions to change or keep current subroutines if expected or actual events are diverging or converging. It stands to reason that a subject with higher intelligence would be more adept at active processing, logical skills, and systematic integration and hence the better reader.

In sum, the results of this investigation show that a language-free intelligence measure is a better predictor of scores achieved on a cloze test and a reading comprehension test than responses to oral and written language inventories for an adult L2 subject pool. The responses to the language inventories are not as consistent and homogenous as the IQ data because, apparently, these intensive English students have not yet completed the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift in English which usually occurs in L1 English speakers between the ages of 5 and 7.

APPENDIX A

Oral Language Inventory[2]

NAME_____

CLASS_____

Native Language_____

INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to read a list of common words to you. As I read each word, tell me the first word that comes into your mind.

1. in	_____	16. morning	_____
2. she	_____	17. pay	_____
3. go	_____	18. laugh	_____
4. up	_____	19. front	_____
5. old	_____	20. short	_____
6. day	_____	21. poor	_____
7. kind	_____	22. happy	_____
8. life	_____	23. hot	_____
9. work	_____	24. South	_____
10. father	_____	25. easy	_____
11. high	_____	26. pretty	_____
12. city	_____	27. against	_____
13. war	_____	28. wife	_____
14. open	_____	29. smile	_____
15. white	_____	30. foreign	_____

APPENDIX B

Written Language Inventory

Name_____

Class_____

Native Language_____

INSTRUCTIONS: Below is a list of common words. For each word, write down the first word that comes to mind as you read that word.

1. from	_____	16. beginning	_____
2. we	_____	17. buy	_____
3. walk	_____	18. speak	_____
4. over	_____	19. sign	_____
5. true	_____	20. small	_____
6. book	_____	21. free	_____
7. prince	_____	22. full	_____
8. room	_____	23. heavy	_____
9. run	_____	24. bottom	_____
10. friend	_____	25. soft	_____
11. top	_____	26. tall	_____
12. car	_____	27. strange	_____
13. game	_____	28. team	_____
14. push	_____	29. cry	_____
15. red	_____	30. same	_____

TABLE 1

Summary Statistics

Variable	No. of Subjects	No. of Items	Mean	S.D.	KR-20 r_{tt}	100 Item r_{tt}
Oral Syntagmatic	33	30	14.30	6.94	.88	.96
Written Syntagmatic	33	30	15.03	6.45	.86	.95
Oral Paradigmatic	33	30	15.48	7.02	.88	.96
Written Paradigmatic	33	30	14.55	6.51	.86	.95
Raven's	33	60	50.03	6.60	.87	.92
Cloze	33	100	24.63	11.48	.93	.93
Reading Comp.	33	40	15.93	5.85	.77	.89

TABLE 2

t-Tests: Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Responses

	Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	df	Level of Sign.
Oral Syntagmatic	14.30				
Written Syntagmatic	15.03	.73	1.03	32	n.s.
Oral Paradigmatic	15.48				
Written Paradigmatic	14.55	.93	1.29	32	n.s.
Oral Syntagmatic	14.30				
Oral Paradigmatic	15.48	1.18	.48	32	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	15.03				
Written Paradigmatic	14.55	.48	.21	32	n.s.

TABLE 3

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Median: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Syntagmatic

Variable	High Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Low Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U value	Level of Sign	z	Level of Sign.
					All Subjects				
Raven's	50.50	50.31	.19	.08	n.s.				
Cloze	26.25	24.21	2.09	.47	n.s.				
Read. Comp.	14.50	16.57	2.01	.94	n.s.				
					Intermediate				
Raven's	51.86	51.67	.19			39	n.s.	-.255	n.s.
Cloze	23.43	24.67	1.24			40	n.s.	-.169	n.s.
Read. Comp.	11.57	15.17	3.60			29.5	n.s.	-1.059	.01
					Advanced				
Raven's	46.17	48.87	2.70			16.5	n.s.	-.4.57	.01
Cloze	28.33	22.62	5.71			16	n.s.	-1.052	.01
Read. Comp.	18.33	18.75	.42			21.5	n.s.	-.32	n.s.

TABLE 4

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Median: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Syntagmatic

Variable	High Written Syntagmatic Mean	Low Written Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All subjects				
Raven's	50.10	49.57	.53	.21	n.s.				
Cloze	27.10	23.95	3.15	.71	n.s.				
Read. Comp.	15.80	15.57	.23	.11	n.s.				
					Intermediate				
Raven's	52.33	51.46	.87			35	n.s.	-.353	n.s.
Cloze	24.17	24.38	.21			32	n.s.	-.615	n.s.
Read. Comp.	13.83	13.85	.02			38	n.s.	-.088	n.s.
					Advanced				
Raven's	49.33	46.50	3.73			23	n.s.	-.609	n.s.
Cloze	27.50	23.25	4.25			17.5	n.s.	-.855	n.s.
Read. Comp.	19.33	18.37	.96			21	n.s.	-.39	n.s.

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TABLE 5
Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Median: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Paradigmatic

Variable	High Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Low Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All Subjects				
Raven's	50.61	50.07	.54	.24	n.s.				
Cloze	24.67	25.46	.79	.19	n.s.				
Read. Comp.	16.78	14.38	2.40	1.11	n.s.				
					Intermediate				
Raven's	52.27	51.00	1.27			35	n.s.	-.749	n.s.
Cloze	25.45	22.75	2.70			41.5	n.s.	-.207	n.s.
Read Comp.	15.36	11.75	3.61			31	n.s.	-1.078	.01

TABLE 6

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Median: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Paradigmatic

Variable	High Written Paradigmatic Mean	Low Written Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign	U-Value	Level of Sign	z	Level of Sign
					All Subjects				
Raven's	49.90	49.45	.45	.18	n.s.				
Cloze	24.90	25.09	.19	.04	n.s.				
Read.Comp.	16.10	14.82	1.28	.60	n.s.				
					Intermediate				
Raven's	52.17	51.00	1.17			38	n.s.	-.340	n.s.
Cloze	26.00	21.43	4.57			40	n.s.	-.169	n.s.
Read. Comp.	14.58	12.57	2.01			32.5	n.s.	-.805	n.s.

Table 7

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Median: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Raven's

Variable	High Raven's Mean	Low Raven's Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign	z	Level of Sign
					All Subjects				
Oral Syntagmatic	14.68	12.20	2.48	.74	n.s.				
Written Syntagmatic	15.25	13.80	1.45	.46	n.s.				
Oral Paradigmatic	15.10	17.60	2.50	.73	n.s.				
Written Paradigmatic	14.57	14.40	.17	.05	n.s.				
Cloze	26.89	12.00	14.89	3.01	.01				
Read. Comp.	16.89	10.60	6.29	2.40	.05				
					Intermediate				
Oral Syntagmatic	13.92	15.17	1.25			38	n.s.	-.088	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	15.15	14.67	.48			33.5	n.s.	-.484	n.s.
Oral Paradigmatic	15.92	14.00	1.92			34.5	n.s.	-.396	n.s.
Written Paradigmatic	14.62	13.50	1.12			38	n.s.	-.088	n.s.
Cloze	24.38	24.17	.21			27.5	n.s.	-1.009	.01
Read. Comp.	15.23	10.83	4.40			21	n.s.	-1.585	.01
					Advanced				
Oral Syntagmatic	14.67	12.00	2.67			9.5	n.s.	-.457	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	15.25	14.00	1.25			9.5	n.s.	-.458	n.s.
Oral Paradigmatic	15.33	18.00	2.67			9.5	n.s.	-.457	n.s.
Written Paradigmatic	14.75	16.00	1.25			9.5	n.s.	-.458	n.s.
Cloze	20.33	16.00	4.33			5.5	n.s.	-1.191	.01
Read. Comp.	19.25	16.00	3.25			6.5	n.s.	-1.007	.01

TABLE 8

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Mean: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Syntagmatic

Variable	High Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Low Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign
			All Subjects						
Raven's	49.68	50.00	.32	.12	n.s.				
Cloze	24.75	25.76	1.01	.22	n.s.				
Read. Comp.	15.68	15.15	.53	.25	n.s.				
			Intermediate						
Raven's	51.80	50.85	.95			34.5	n.s.	-.050	n.s.
Cloze	22.60	26.57	3.97			34.5	n.s.	-.050	n.s.
Read.Comp.	13.80	13.14	.66			32.5	n.s.	-.252	n.s.
			Advanced						
Raven's	46.16	49.00	2.84			11	n.s.	-1.130	.01
Cloze	28.33	24.83	3.50			14	n.s.	-.645	n.s.
Read.Comp.	18.83	17.50	1.33			13.5	n.s.	-.724	n.s.

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TABLE 9

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Mean; Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Syntagmatic

Variable	High Written Syntagmatic Mean	Low Written Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
			All subjects						
Raven's	50.31	49.76	.55	.24	n.s.				
Cloze	24.87	24.41	.46	.11	n.s.				
Read.Comp.	17.06	14.88	2.18	1.09	n.s.				
			Intermediate						
Raven's	53.25	50.63	2.62			30	n.s.	-1.165	.01
Cloze	24.12	24.45	.33			36	n.s.	-.662	n.s.
Read.Comp.	15.38	12.72	2.66			32	n.s.	-.995	.01
			Advanced						
Raven's	47.37	48.17	.80			18	n.s.	-.779	n.s.
Cloze	25.62	24.33	1.29			22	n.s.	-.259	n.s.
Read.Comp.	18.75	18.83	.08			24	n.s.	0	n.s.

TABLE 10

Parametric t-tests

Mean: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Paradigmatic

Variable	High Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Low Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.
				All subjects	
Raven's	50.25	49.33	.92	.38	n.s.
Cloze	24.87	24.60	.27	.06	n.s.
Read. Comp.	16.56	14.93	1.63	.81	n.s.

TABLE 11

Parametric t-tests

Mean; Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Paradigmatic

Variable	High Written Paradigmatic Mean	Low Written Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.
			All subjects		
Raven's	50.06	50.00	.06	.89	n.s.
Cloze	26.33	23.22	3.11	.78	n.s.
Reading. Comp.	15.93	15.94	.01	.004	n.s.

TABLE 12

Parametric and Nonparametric t-tests

Mean: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Raven's

Variable	High Raven's Mean	Low Raven's Mean	Difference Between Means	t-value	Level of Sign.	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All Subjects				
Oral Syntagmatic	13.00	16.21	3.21	1.32	n.s.				
Written Syntagmatic	14.22	16.42	2.20	.96	n.s.				
Oral Paradigmatic	16.88	13.42	3.46	1.41	n.s.				
Written Paradigmatic	15.61	12.78	2.83	1.24	n.s.				
Cloze	23.27	25.71	2.44	.59	n.s.				
Read.Comp.	16.67	14.92	1.75	.83	n.s.				
					Intermediate				
Oral Syntagmatic	12.60	15.17	2.57			26	n.s.	-.436	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	15.90	14.67	1.23			25	n.s.	-.544	n.s.
Cloze	25.00	24.17	.83			20	n.s.	-1.085	.01
Read.Comp.	16.30	10.83	5.47			13	.05	-1.849	.01
					Advanced				
Oral Syntagmatic	11.57	15.33	3.76			15.5	n.s.	-.788	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	12.14	16.33	4.19			11.5	n.s.	-1.363	.01
Cloze	29.17	22.14	7.03			13.5	n.s.	-1.079	.01
Read.Comp.	19.50	19.00	.50			11.5	n.s.	-1.363	.01

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TABLE 13

Nonparametric t-tests

± ISD: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Syntagmatic

Variable	High Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Low Oral Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
				All subjects			
Raven's	51.29	53.50	2.21	12	n.s.	-1.291	.01
Cloze	26.86	22.33	4.53	14	n.s.	-1.005	.01
Read. Comp.	14.71	15.33	.62	19	n.s.	-.287	n.s.
				Intermediate			
Raven's	53.00	52.50	.50	7	n.s.		
Cloze	25.50	24.00	1.50	7.5	n.s.		
Read. Comp.	11.75	13.25	1.50	6.5	n.s.		

TABLE 14

Nonparametric t-tests

± ISD: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Syntagmatic

Variable	High Written Syntagmatic Mean	Low Written Syntagmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All subjects		
Raven's	52.00	51.75	.25	26.5	n.s.	-.174	n.s.
Cloze	25.57	29.37	3.80	25.5	n.s.	-.290	n.s.
Read. Comp.	15.42	17.00	1.58	20.5	n.s.	-.869	n.s.
					Intermediate		
Raven's	53.33	47.33	6.00	1	n.s.		
Cloze	29.00	32.33	3.33	3	n.s.		
Read. Comp.	12.67	12.00	.67	3.5	n.s.		

TABLE 15

Nonparametric t-tests

± ISD: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Oral Paradigmatic

Variable	High Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Low Oral Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
				All subjects			
Raven's	53.50	49.00	4.50	4	n.s.	-1.705	.01
Cloze	22.33	28.50	6.17	8	n.s.	-.857	n.s.
Read. Comp.	15.33	13.25	2.08	5.5	n.s.	-.534	n.s.

TABLE 16

Nonparametric t-tests

± ISD: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Written Paradigmatic

Variable	High Written Paradigmatic Mean	Low Written Paradigmatic Mean	Difference Between Means	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All subjects		
Raven's	51.75	50.20	1.55	17.5	n.s.	-.368	n.s.
Cloze	29.38	22.60	6.78	18	n.s.	-.294	n.s.
Read. Comp.	17.00	11.20	5.80	8	.05	-1.765	.01
					Intermediate		
Raven's	51.20	43.33	2.13	6	n.s.		
Cloze	31.80	29.00	2.80	7	n.s.		
Read. Comp.	14.80	12.67	2.13	5.5	n.s.		

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TABLE 17

Nonparametric t-tests

± ISD: Criterion for High and Low Groups

Raven's

Variable	High Raven's Mean	Low Raven's Mean	Difference Between Means	U-value	Level of Sign.	z	Level of Sign.
					All subjects		
Oral Syntagmatic	10.67	12.20	1.53	12.5	n.s.	-.458	n.s.
Written Syntagmatic	13.83	13.80	.80	14.5	n.s.	-.091	n.s.
Oral Paradigmatic	19.33	17.60	1.79	13.5	n.s.	-.275	n.s.
Written Paradigmatic	16.17	14.40	1.77	12.5	n.s.	-.457	n.s.
Cloze	27.00	12.00	15.00	.5	.05	-2.652	.01
Read. Comp.	16.50	8.00	8.5	5	.05	-1.829	.01
					Intermediate		
Oral Paradigmatic	17.75	16.60	1.15	9.5	n.s.		
Written Paradigmatic	14.75	16.00	1.25	8	n.s.		

Endnotes

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The word list for the Oral Language Inventory (Appendix A) is found in Bickley, Dinnan, and Bickley (1970:292).

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